

JOURNAL

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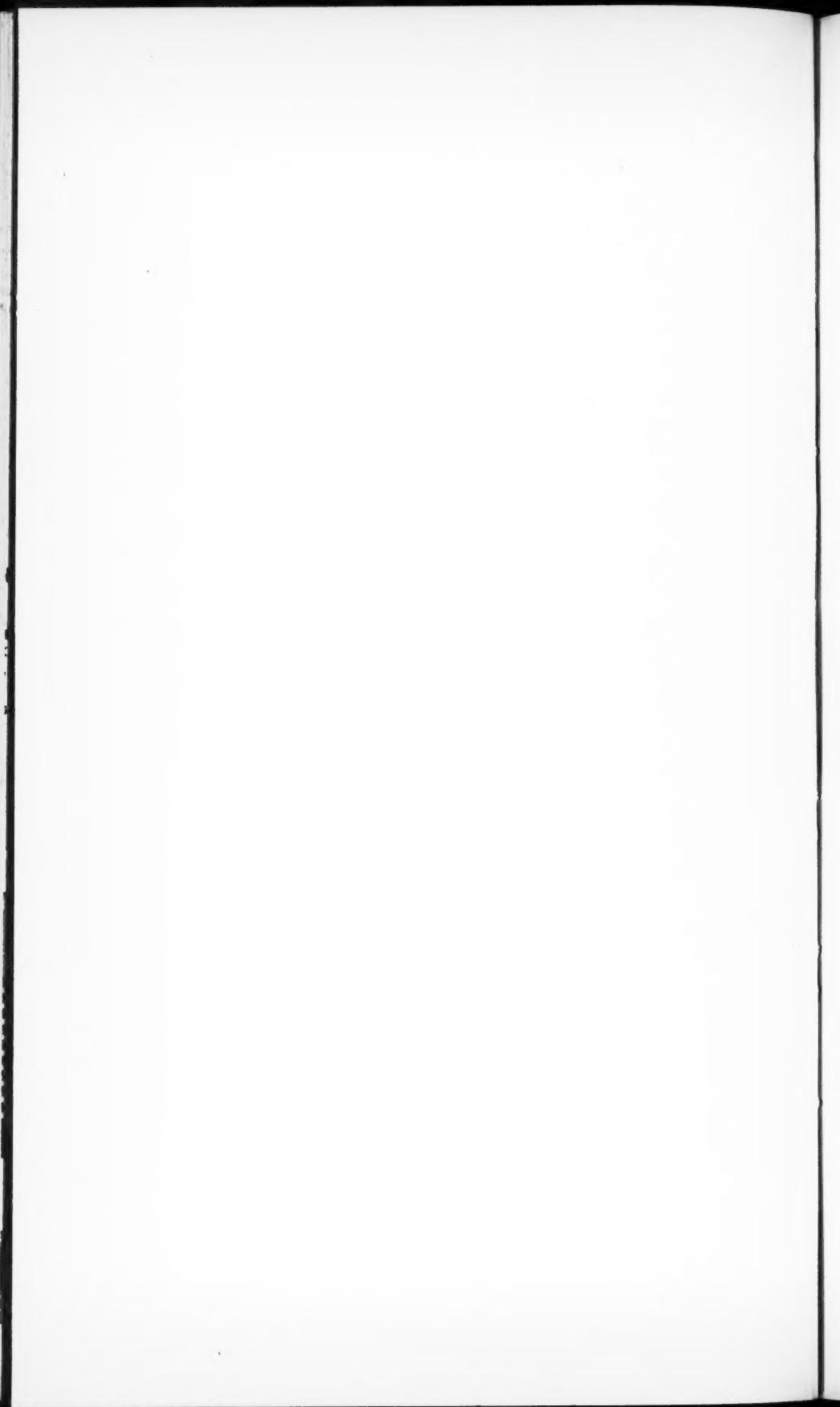
AMERICAN ASSOCIATION
of COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS



JANUARY, 1943

VOLUME EIGHTEEN

NUMBER TWO



JOURNAL *of the* JANUARY, 1943
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of COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS

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Contributors to This Number

ROY W. BIXLER, formerly Registrar and Director of Admissions, University of Chicago, was Editor of the JOURNAL from 1932 to 1936. He has recently become Field Representative in the Student War Loans Program, Division of Higher Education, U. S. Office of Education.

CLEMENT HOLLAND is Assistant Professor of Education at St. Louis University. He is a member of the Missouri Curriculum Evaluation and Planning Committee.

MARK KARP is Instructor in English at the State Teachers College, Paterson, New Jersey.

LEO PAUL KIBBY is Dean of Guidance and Vice-Principal of Ventura Junior College, Ventura, California. He is on

leave for the duration and is serving as Lieutenant (j.g.), U. S. Naval Reserve.

WINONA M. PERRY is Professor of Educational Psychology and Measurements in the University of Nebraska.

CHARLES H. SANDAGE is Professor of Marketing at Miami University. He is Price Consultant for the Office of Price Administration in Ohio and during the summer of 1942 served as State Price Officer for the Ohio O.P.A. He is the author of widely used textbooks in Marketing.

JOHN L. SEATON is President of Albion College, Albion, Michigan. He has been an active figure in the field of higher education for many years, and recently served as President of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.

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Above: Memorial Hall and Hill Top, two dormitories at Mary Baldwin College.

Below: The Administration Building and the Chapel. The Chapel is the former First Presbyterian Church in which Woodrow Wilson was baptized.

THIS is centennial year at Mary Baldwin College, Staunton, Virginia. Founded in 1842 as Augusta Female Seminary, the institution has been in continuous operation for one hundred years. Miss Mary Julia Baldwin, for whom the college was named, was Principal during the Civil War and until her death in 1897. The Seminary had been doing collegiate work practically since its founding, and in 1923 it became an accredited four-year college.

The centennial program of the college has been planned in three parts: the alumnae emphasis at commencement in June; the religious emphasis in September, when the Presbyterian Synod of Virginia met in Staunton as guests of the college; and the academic convocation in October. On account of the war situation this last event has been indefinitely postponed.



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VOL. 18, NO. 2

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The American College in War Time

JOHN L. SEATON

IT IS WELL for me to admit in advance a clear recognition that my views are not in full accord with the popular mood of the hour. Perhaps that is natural in one who has been connected with college life during three wars, and who sees in that long perspective the havoc and disillusionment they work among the youth of the nation and the leaders of youth. Can we forget the hot enthusiasm, the sense of an almost holy crusade, with which they undertook twenty-five years ago to "make the world safe for democracy", and the demoralizing chill that settled upon them in the sordid aftermath? Is it strange that the youth of today view with scepticism many of the pronouncements concerning the purposes of this war and its probable results? They do not forget that the one instrument which promised the peace of the world was deliberately sabotaged in the Senate of the United States.

THE EMERGENCY

We are in a war with new alignments but not greatly different purposes. It is not more ruthless than the previous world war, but it is far more extensive. It involves all continents, the islands of the sea, and all races. It represents a conflict between irreconcilable ideals and aspirations as they are now professed. No one knows how long it will continue or what, if anything, it will settle. At times we are tempted to think with Santayana that "Only the dead have seen the end of war."

It is a total war in a sense that previously has been unknown. Losses have already taken place that will be bitterly felt for generations, and they are but tokens of greater losses to come. Students have been called from college, husbands have been torn away from wives, parents have been forced to leave their families by the pressure of circumstances if not by direct legal enactment. The arts of peace have been diverted to the production of arms and munitions. The luxuries of life have largely vanished and the necessities are subject to sharp restrictions. Funds are voted and spent at a rate never before known and enormous debts are being piled up, billions upon billions. When the war is over the world will be impoverished, and cherished freedoms will have been lost unless rare wisdom prevails at the peace tables and in the halls of government.

It would be useless to deny that we as a nation are in part responsible for the long series of events by which we have been drawn into this total war. Wherever the blame may eventually be placed we are agreed that the war must be fought to a finish. As a nation we may not have wanted to fight and as individuals we may be strongly opposed to war, but we must take part in the present crisis in whatever form and to whatever degree our conscience permits. Hitler may have been right in saying when he began his invasions that the issue would determine the nature of civilization for a thousand years. At such a time there can be no exemption from service to the common cause and from the common suffering.

RESPONSES OF EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS

Historically the army and navy have regarded educational institutions as natural recruiting stations because the students were young and because the group appeal could be made to them. In the war between the states many colleges were almost emptied of male students and the devastating losses to the future which thereby resulted were ignored.

As might have been expected officials of colleges and universities were called for a conference at Baltimore within a month of the attack on Pearl Harbor. Association meetings which had long been planned were abandoned in order to make way for it. Representatives came from all sections of the country at the expense of their institutions to learn what the government wanted and what they might do to help. Their response was splendid, and the patient continuance of

the representatives in a series of the most exhausting and speech-wearied meetings I have ever attended was convincing evidence of their co-operative and patriotic spirit. Unfortunately, and perhaps necessarily at that early stage, few constructive plans were presented, and as in later gatherings there was an obvious lack of agreement among the representatives of the armed forces. More conferring and less speaking, especially in the *ex cathedra* form used by some of the officials, doubtless would have obtained better results.

A week later the Executive Committee of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools met in Chicago. It adopted recommendations to be sent to all member schools in favor of doing "everything possible" to contribute "actively and definitely" to meeting "the issues which the war brings." The recommendations also urged that in adopting accelerated programs all possible care be taken to ensure against dilution of the courses and loss in the quality of the work. Later at the annual meeting of the Association arrangements were made to give the armed forces ample opportunity for presenting their views.

Other associations promptly took like measures and adopted similar resolutions. The schools in their turn devised such measures as they considered immediately feasible and at the cost of much time and money they sent representatives to meetings called here and there to discuss the adjustments which appeared to be most useful. Their response may rightly be regarded as among the most notable instances of patriotic spirit and devotion to the public welfare. Felix Morley said in an article dated October 31, "the colleges have done so much with so little fanfare that some public recognition of their accomplishment would seem to be in order". Far from receiving compliments "they are blamed for not doing more", even to the point of adopting policies which eventually would destroy them.

The faculties are caught in an unenviable position. They have surrendered leisure and time for research and writing to which they had become accustomed. The younger teachers have been called one by one to war and industry. The remaining teachers have closed ranks and taken on the extra duties without a murmur and frequently without extra pay from their institution. In truth they are among the few contributing definitely to war training by overtime and extra work who do not have some compensation from the government.

The entire system of education, public and private, has been per-

vaded by a commendable spirit of co-operation, although at times distinctly panicky about untimely pronouncements from government officials and the lack of concerted working plans. Educators have been anxious to do what they could but most of them have prudently wished to avoid doing they knew not what in their zeal to do something.

DIFFERING VIEWS

From this background it is well to consider and perhaps it is possible to weigh more judicially the different types of action taken and contemplated. In general the schools fall into three groups—which I should hesitate to call the right, the left, and the center. On the whole it is good for the country, I think, that the three groups do exist. The first is relatively small, composed of the colleges which because of lack of facilities, special conditions, or reasons not definitely listed, felt that they could serve best by continuing in much the usual way. They have not changed their organization, added courses, or accelerated their total program, although the tempo and emphasis in class instruction doubtless have been affected. It is impossible for us to know all the facts regarding such institutions, but it may be assumed that their procedure has been chosen after taking due counsel with themselves and others as to the best method of discharging their obligations. They evidently agree with Mr. Bedford that "it will be better for students to have two years of sound college training without a degree than two years of a confounded superficial dash for a degree which has lost its meaning." Because of their conservatism now it is likely that after the war such of them as survive will be able most quickly and easily to satisfy the revived desire for music, art, and the humanities, and to meet the renewed demand for liberal education in all its ranges. I for one do not believe that the education which has developed through many generations is so wrong and futile that the extemporalizations made in response to the needs of a world war will bring about a sweeping and permanent change. That was the general view in the last world war, but the expectations so widely and positively expressed were not fulfilled.

The second group is made up of institutions that hastened to go the limit. They had jitters of various kinds and were anxious, probably with entire sincerity, to give a quick and positive demonstration of patriotic spirit. They announced programs for which they were not prepared at the time and for which their difficulties would be com-

pounded in the future. They offered courses for which they lacked equipment and in which they could give only the merest smattering of instruction. They accepted with full credence the statement from the War Manpower Commission that "All able-bodied male students are destined for the armed forces," a statement which takes no account of other essential services in which some of these young men will be necessary. They hold that "education is an essential war time industry" and that everything in education must be subordinated to the purposes of war. It is probable that they think of themselves in the terms of the American Council release of September 21: "The problem facing the institution is not 'How can we continue to offer existing courses and programs?' It is rather 'How can we most effectively utilize every available facility of the institution, including faculty personnel, to train the largest possible number of men and women in essential technical and scientific knowledge and skill in the shortest possible period of time?'"

There is much that is admirable in the zeal of such institutions, but one may doubt that it is always in accord with good judgment. I do not often agree with President Robert M. Hutchins of the University of Chicago but I think it true, as he says, that "the tendency of some accelerated programs has been to squeeze out the things worth doing because they are superficially less attractive than the things not worth doing. The situation has been aggravated by adding to accelerated programs more waste, water, and frivolity in the guise of 'war courses.' . . . Our greatest mistake has been believing that technology will solve all our problems. . . . We need technology to win the war but technology (alone) will not win it. And technology alone will not establish a just and lasting peace. What will win the war and establish a just and lasting peace is educated citizens. . . . I reject in the strongest terms Mr. McNutt's assertion that non-essential courses must be replaced by subjects of immediate utility in winning the war. The subjects which will be of greatest value in winning the war are . . . those which will teach you as citizens to think."¹

This appears to be the view of the Canadian Government. The training given to students in the Canadian Officers' Training Corps set up in universities and colleges is general in character, including, of course, a great deal of mathematics and science, soundly organized and effectively taught. It is a foundation upon which to build the

¹Opening address to Freshmen, 1942.

military knowledge and the specific skills essential to service in the various armed forces. In such a program reasonably good provision can be made for the needs of the present and the future.

The third group constitutes the center. It includes many institutions with varied adaptations to the war, but with the common conception that education must now serve the purposes of both war and peace with wisdom and judicious balance. The foreword of President Alexander G. Ruthven's annual report to the Regents states it in terms of which I fully approve:

Regrettable as are the conditions . . . they should not be allowed so to warp our sense of values that we call upon our citizens, particularly our youth, to make unnecessary sacrifices and upon our educational institutions to give up their work of preparing the trained men and women needed to carry on the activities of an intelligent democracy.

It is customary to refer to the youth of a war period as a lost generation. Unhappily, the term is an appropriate one in many ways. There are other losses to these young men and women besides death, impaired health, and broken careers, always incident to armed conflict. One is a lower standard of education. . . .

. . . To promote the public welfare, our colleges and universities cannot do better than cling at all times to their ideals and refuse to give less than their best to the students. To do otherwise is to short-change war generations with inferior instruction and bracketed, or too concentrated, courses.

There are, unfortunately, educators who would in these times make war colleges of our institutions of higher education. With misguided zeal they refuse to discourage students from leaving college before they are needed, and urge instructors to offer their services to the Army, the Navy, and government bureaus, even when they would be of more service as teachers. The patriotism of these men is not to be questioned; not so their judgment. The safety of the nation must not be neglected, but full safety even in time of war involves the promotion of the welfare of the civilian population, adequate instruction for our young people, and proper consideration of the problems of a post-war world. The task of national defense is not the relatively simple one of accumulating arms, munitions, ships, soldiers, and other means of destruction. It is also one of supplying a steady flow of intelligent, well-educated, conscientious, skilled citizens.²

² Published Report, 1942.

These colleges of the center have reorganized their programs in varying degrees, lengthened or established summer schools, added courses with special reference to the war, permitted students to carry extra hours, adjusted themselves to war's demands, but they have not gone "all out." They know that there are values to be conserved in our American liberal education, which is essentially an education of free men. They believe that sound, thorough education in the humanities, economics, political science, and other subjects not immediately concerned with a war program is necessary for the development of intelligent citizenship and the perpetuation of democracy. It therefore must not be sacrificed to the immediate urgencies. At the same time that young people are being taught for the purposes of war they must be "indoctrinated" with ideals and appreciation of the priceless insights and achievements of our democratic inheritance. We are now at Armageddon in the irreconcilable conflict between such ideals and the doctrine of raw brute force. As never before education has the responsibility of teaching with logic and passion the difference between them, and of leading students to rejection of the one and complete unchanging adoption in thought and action of the other. Liberal education must continue in full vitality. Otherwise, we may find later that freedom has been "slain at her own altar."

What are the outlines of a sound program for the colleges in these times of stress and deep dislocations? The answers already have been intimated, but a few specific suggestions may help to bring the central ideas of this paper into sharp focus.

First, the colleges should provide dual programs alike in some respects but differing in various ways. One would be for the students who are unwilling and those who are unable on account of physical, intellectual, financial, or other reasons to take the accelerated programs. There is no doubt in my mind that a rather leisurely education with ample time for maturation—or just "growing up"—is desirable for a large number of young people and is in the public interest, especially for the future. There is equally no doubt that since the government has not seen fit, except in a very limited plan for loans, to provide financial aid for students, many who want to take an accelerated program and are competent to take it are excluded from it by the necessity of partial or full self-support. They have to work in the summers and short vacations and at such hours as they can spare from their studies to remain in college at all. It is much better for them to

go as far as they can in the solid, well organized courses that have been regularly offered than to acquire the fragmentary smatterings of accelerated courses with which they can not keep pace. At least they will have something that is of value in itself and that fits into a pattern.

The accelerated program must, of course, be worked out by each institution in the way that best suits its own conditions. The Lafayette College plan of four quarters of ten weeks each looks the best to me in its outlines and its details of all the plans I have seen. Trimesters or two semesters with extended summer schools, seem to the majority of the colleges and universities to be adequate for their purposes and to be less disturbing to their normal procedures. Whatever the method the plan is to keep the student working under high pressure for practically the entire year, and to reduce his residence in college by one third to one half. A correlate is that the student be permitted and in some cases required to take more hours a week than have been regarded as consistent with good scholarship. I have seen announcements which stated that they might be increased by one third. It is obvious that this amount of work could be done well only by students of high ability and rugged health. The others would persevere to the end, getting what they could and calling it an education, or they would fall by the way.

Accelerated programs as a response to a national demand for the largest possible number of men with at least the elements of college education to be produced in the shortest possible time implies other adjustments, some of which might well become permanent. For example, men not graduates of high schools but of demonstrated ability to do college work should be admitted at least while the emergency lasts. Each institution could readily work out means of satisfying itself of the fitness of such men and of providing the best courses for them. Whether or not the courses would be counted toward a degree is immaterial at present. It is a question which the institution itself could eventually answer in the light of developments.

For high school graduates entrance requirements should be modified or interpreted more liberally. The University and the State College have done wisely, I believe, in announcing that they will recognize elementary aeronautics in place of other subjects in meeting sequence requirements. The question might be raised, why sequences at all or any system of prescribed subjects? That may sound strange coming from one who was raised mainly on the classics, mathematics, phi-

losophy, and psychology. But I have never been able to see that any particular subject is sacred as an entrance requirement. Quality in the work done is the important consideration. That is a view I long have held. It was strengthened by five years of close association with Stanford University where "the only prescribed subject for admission . . . is English, two units after the ninth grade." The catalog carries this statement: "The University is prepared to recognize for entrance credit . . . any subject having an established place in the secondary school curriculum in which adequate instruction is given and which is pursued to satisfactory results." Of course, an applicant who lacked subjects essential as tools for some college courses would have to acquire them, probably without credit, but meanwhile he could go on with work which he is prepared to do.

In the curriculum itself I believe that there should be greater flexibility. In some courses pre-requisites or continuities are essential. But all other courses should be set up as semester or quarter units, each complete in itself and open to election in other than the usual order. Intensive short courses also might be given a larger place in preparing men to meet the present needs. The list of such courses is not long and in some instances they require equipment which many of the colleges do not possess and cannot obtain.

It would be consistent also as an emergency measure to grant more leeway to students who are called before the expiration of a term or a year. I do not believe in giving credit for work that has not been done, but I do believe in liberality with regard to substitutions and work done in absentia. Caution would need to be exercised, but a technicality should not be permitted to stand in the way of our best service to youth who have no choice about the time of their induction into the armed forces. The welfare of the individual and the largest contribution to the common good are the guiding principles. Fortunate are we if we always can discern just what they require of us.

THE PART OF THE GOVERNMENT

It seems to me regrettable beyond expression that so much confusion has emanated from Washington. Much of it could have been avoided if the educational institutions had been included in the councils long before the war, at least as soon as the war began to seem imminent. Even after Pearl Harbor genuine conferences between the government and the representatives instead of numerous and extended

speeches made to them or about them would have helped. If I read correctly the reports from Canada the matter was handled much better there and provision was early made to utilize fully the resources and staffs of the universities and colleges by establishing within them contingents of the Canadian Officers' Training Corps under conditions which permit real education to be accomplished.

I believe that most of our colleges and universities have been ready to do everything possible, but we have been almost hopelessly confused by a multiplicity of demands, conflicting pronouncements, and competing services.

For example, a clear-cut policy concerning what the different types of institutions might be expected to do is necessary if the desired participation and results are to be obtained. There are universities and technical schools with equipment, shops, landing fields, etc., that are in position to do almost anything the armed forces want; there are colleges with access to landing fields, technical equipment, and shops where practical skills may be developed; and there are many liberal arts colleges without any of these facilities, but with good equipment in physics, chemistry, biology, and in some cases astronomy. These different types all receive the same communications—almost endless in number—are expected to fill out the same reports, and are subjected to the same visitations. The fact that they are so different and the implications of that fact seem not to have occurred to the authorities in Washington. With the amount of information available at the United States Office of Education and the American Council on Education they could easily be classified, services suitable for each type could be designated, and help of various kinds could be given to them in making an adjustment to maximum usefulness. If this were wisely done their laboratories and staffs could afford much relief to the overcrowded laboratories and overworked staffs of universities and technical schools.

The question of manpower with all its ramifications is among the most confusing and disturbing problems. What has failed to be done is little less than a scandal. The Detroit *Free Press* opened an editorial on October 18 with these words: "The government's timid and dilatory handling of the manpower situation threatens to bog down our whole war effort. That is now generally recognized." Probably Mr. McNutt is not wholly to blame, but the fact remains that we have gone along for months without any precise and concerted estimates

from responsible officials as to how many persons should be in the armed forces, how many in industry, how many on the farms, and how many in college where essential education must go on whether the war be short or long. The condition of England today furnishes ample warning against undue depletion of students and faculties to teach them. The great universities such as Oxford and Cambridge were practically emptied into the front lines and trenches in the previous war. Talent of inestimable value was destroyed. In consequence Britain sadly lacks leaders in the age period from the late forties to the early sixties. There is justification for the question raised in debate by a member of the House of Commons, "Whom have we but Churchill?" Wiser counsels appear to have prevailed this time in both England and Canada than here. In a recent report the reduction in student enrollments is said to be only about 25 per cent in spite of the length of time that those countries have been in the war. Here in the short time of our participation we already have a nearly equal average reduction and more than fifty colleges have closed. More will speedily follow.

Here the confusion as to the distribution of manpower continues, even with respect to the possible size of the army. There, if anywhere, specific facts should be obtainable, and only consistent representations should be made to the public. A few weeks ago General Lewis B. Hershey predicted an army of 10,000,000 to 13,000,000 men. It sounded like an excessive estimate then, especially to persons who have given any thought to the necessities of production. Two or three weeks later Secretary Henry L. Stimson gave a most welcome sign of soberness in bringing the figure down to 7,500,000. Recently in the same mail two communications from officials in Washington came to my desk. One of them said that 7 to 10 persons in production are required to keep one soldier in the field. The other said that in modern warfare 16 to 18 are required. Aside from the confusion such conflicting statements reveal they also indicate clearly enough that even on an estimate midway between these figures an army of 10,000,000 to 13,000,000 and the accompanying forces, could not be maintained. Not enough producers, including the boys and girls in the elementary schools and the aged who were still able to work, would remain. It is obvious that less irresponsible talking, more accurate thinking, and better co-ordination are badly needed in Washington. They are essential if the distribution of manpower is to be

determined in accord with needs, present and future, adequate provision is to be made for its training, and the educational institutions are to be in position to render their full service.

In the October *Educational Record* Chancellor Samuel P. Capen summarizes the situation as follows: "Within the next few months some decision will have to be made by the government as to how the colleges and universities are to be used in this war. The government will have to decide whether it will avail itself fully of their resources for the production of a continuing supply and an adequate supply of specialists and for the basic training of officers; or whether it will make no comprehensive provision for their use and will risk such a depletion of the technical and professional skill of the nation as was narrowly averted by the interposition of destiny twenty-four years ago. The decision is a fateful one for America and it is overdue."

Finally, it seems clear to me that some method of financial aid to students, which goes much beyond the present plans for loans, and to colleges, for any additional costs which they incur by reason of services contributing directly to training for war is essential. Though I always have been opposed to government subsidies to educational institutions they may become, if the war lasts for a long time, the only way of conserving for future needs both the facilities and the organized staffs vitally related to all the high interests of our American way of life and our American ideals. I personally favor the Conant plan of selecting superior young people and sending them to college for designated courses at government expense.

We must win the war and we must win the peace. We also must win decisively in the conflicts, social, economic, and political, which will emerge after the peace. For the task ahead we do not have too many schools of any rank and there will never be too many educated men. Knowledge, perspective, moral idealism, and all that we mean by "vision" will be needed increasingly in rebuilding the world and setting it on firm foundations. Let that be realized by the government and adequate measures be taken to conserve and extend the benefits of an education suited to a world of free men. And as for us in the colleges

"We'll keep the honor of a certain aim,
Amid the peril of uncertain ways,
And sail ahead, and leave the rest to God."

The Functional Scope of Administration in Colleges and Universities*

ROY W. BIXLER

IT IS common to think of administration as primarily concerned with the carrying out or execution of policies in applying them to specific cases and situations. It is the purpose of this paper to emphasize the narrowness of this concept of administration while showing that it actually includes the three functions of tripartite government, namely, the *legislative* (policy making), the *executive*, and the *judicial*, and to illustrate the fundamental character of the legislative.

It must be recognized of course that the lay board of control is the legally responsible agency for both general and administrative control in colleges and universities. It is equally clear that a lay board is not technically qualified to exercise the function of administrative control directly. This fact is so universally recognized that when a lay board attempts to function in the area of administrative control it is regarded as unfit to serve as such a body. Administrative control, or administration, is, therefore, a function which is and must be delegated to the staff by the board of control. This is an elementary concept in administration which cannot be overstressed.

Understanding of the functional scope of administration can be illuminated by referring to the writings of the social and political scientists who are compelled to look more broadly upon administration than is the average college or university administrator. With no intent to make an exhaustive commentary on the writings of these scholars, let us examine the concepts of three of them who are well-known in their respective fields.

Mannheim's definition of administration as distinct from planning¹ is typical of a common narrow concept of the scope of administrative functioning. "Administration", he says, "does not fight and does not determine aims but is merely a means for carrying them out."² While

* This paper was presented at a meeting of the American Educational Research Association in San Francisco, February, 1942.

¹ Karl Mannheim, *Man and Society in an Age of Reconstruction*, New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1940, p. 193.

² *Ibid.*, p. 294.

this is Mannheim's idea of the theoretical scope of administration, he recognizes a tendency for administrative functions to be broader in practice. This is illustrated by his statement that

. . . Administration is not merely a form of social organization created for the purpose of carrying out certain decisions; it is becoming more and more obvious today that administration is turning into an instrument of political interference and that the methods used in executing the prescribed regulations can serve as an indirect means of altering the balance of power in a society.³

Here he is referring to the fact that the consequences of a policy or law may be changed from what its authors anticipated, by the manner in which it is applied to specific cases. This must always be so, because no policy-making agency can possibly anticipate all of the factors in a situation to which a law or regulation is to be applied. For this reason, executive officers are given a latitude of freedom in the exercise of judgment in execution of policy. If their judgments were always wise, and if the situation in which the policy is applied did not change, the application would always produce consequences in the direction of the achievement of the purposes intended by the framers of the policy. But neither of these conditions can be relied on always to exist. Administrative judgments are not always wise and no two situations in which a policy is applied are exactly alike. The manner of carrying out a policy may lead to consequences which are actually antagonistic to the achievement of the original purpose. Likewise the situations may vary so much that in some cases the original purpose cannot be achieved by application of the policy however wise the judgment of the executive officer may be.

Mannheim recognizes another extension of administrative functioning in practice, namely, a tendency for administration to modify the effect of a policy by exercising an interpretative or judicial function. This is illustrated by the following statement:

. . . The dogmatic distinction between making the law (legislation) and expounding it (jurisdiction) does not seem to be as clear-cut as it used to be, and we see ever more plainly that in the process of jurisdiction the judges are creating the law.⁴

It is clear that Mannheim, although his theoretical concept of ad-

³ *Ibid.*, pp. 270-271.

⁴ *Loc. cit.*

ministration limits its scope to executive functioning, recognizes its policy-making effect through execution and interpretation.

The writings of experts in public administration further illuminate the scope of administrative functioning. Dimock, for example, writing on the relation of administration to government and politics,⁵ defines administration as including legislative, executive, and judicial functions. He says:

Administration is more than mere mechanics. It involves the recommendation of policies; the issuance of orders having the force of law; the choice between alternatives; the hearing of cases and controversies arising in the course of execution. These practices are all part and parcel of the administrative process.⁶

Dimock's discussion in support and elaboration of the point of view expressed in the statement quoted above is substantially as follows, in brief. Government is technical, and administrative officers are the technical experts. Because of their expertness, they participate in the making of laws. Laws pass through a series of interpretations and alterations, beginning with their conception, caused by the impact of the technical advice of administrative experts. They are modified also, in effect, in their execution and by the interpretations placed upon them by the courts. On the other hand, legislative officers may act in such a way as to effect alterations of the method of executive functioning without resorting to the modification of existing laws. When there is public discontent with the effect of a law as it is being applied, a legislative committee may investigate its execution. Such investigations frequently bring about modifications of the method of applying the law. Dimock, in his discussion, makes it clear that no distinction can be made, in public administration, between policy-making, or legislation, and administration, i.e., that administration has an important policy-making function.

Landis sees administration as a fourth branch of the government,⁷ which has developed because of the artificiality of our attempt to separate the legislative, executive, and judicial functions. The many administrative agencies have been created, because of the inadequacy of

⁵ Marshall Dimock, *Modern Politics and Administration*, New York: American Book Company, 1937.

⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 238.

⁷ James Landis, *The Administrative Process*. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1938.

simple tripartite government to deal with modern problems.⁸ The fact that these agencies have been clothed with legislative, executive, and judicial powers indicates that there is a need for integration of these three functions which our government has not provided. The establishment of administrative agencies in which the three functions are integrated has been a response to a recognition of this need. It is significant that the government of private industry has never been conceived along the lines of the tripartite concept.⁹

Landis supports Dimock in his thesis that no distinction can be made in public administration, either between the legislative or policy-making function and administration or between the judicial function and administration, and that administration is involved from the beginning to the end of the process of the development and fruition of governmental policy—from social need to social satisfaction. This is not very different from the concept of administration *as government*.

Turning now to the field of industrial administration, perhaps the most complete functional approach to the study of administration was made by the famous French industrialist, Henri Fayol.¹⁰ Fayol classified the essential operations of a business enterprise under six heads essentially as follows:¹¹

1. Technical operations (production, manufacture, etc.)
2. Commercial operations (purchases, sales, and exchanges)
3. Financial operations (finding and controlling capital)
4. Security operations (protecting goods and persons)
5. Accounting operations (stocktaking, cost accounting, etc.)
6. Administrative operations (planning, organization, command, co-ordination, control)

These six kinds of operations constitute the functions¹² of any business undertaking. Administration, as one of these functions, he breaks down into five administrative functions. Administration, he says, is

1. To plan

⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 1.

⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 10.

¹⁰ Luther Gulick and L. Urwick, ed., *Papers on the Science of Administration*. Chapter V. New York: Institute of Public Administration, Columbia University, 1937.

¹¹ *Ibid.*, p. 119.

¹² A function in the sense in which it is used here is a group of operations related by a specific purpose which they are designed to achieve.

2. To organize
3. To command
4. To co-ordinate
5. To control

Fayol's formulation is not complete as a functional concept, although it is sound as far as it goes. He makes no provision in his six functions for the formulation of purposes and institutional goals. Administration, he says, must not be confused with government which is:

. . . to conduct an undertaking towards its objective by seeking to make the best possible use of all the resources at its disposal; it is, in fact, to insure the smooth working of the six functions.¹³

According to Fayol the objective of the undertaking appears to be set before either government or administration begins to operate, and apparently, neither government nor administration participates in determining it. Fayol's contribution to administrative theory would have been greater if he had seen that it is primarily administration, his sixth type of institutional operation, which "conducts an undertaking toward its objective", and "insures the smooth working of the six functions", including administration itself; in other words, what he calls government is really administration. Fayol, like the others who have been quoted, recognizes the fundamental character of policy-making in administration when he makes planning the first administrative function.

The implications of Fayol's concept of administration for educational administration were drawn out in a study in which the writer participated.¹⁴ It was found in this study that Fayol's six kinds of operations are also the essential kinds of operations of an educational institution when consideration is given to the difference in the purpose of the technical operations in education and in industry, and the difference in the raw materials with which these operations work in the two institutions. The technical operations in a college are such activities as teaching and research and the activities auxiliary to them. There are, however, as in a business enterprise, commercial operations,

¹³ *Ibid.*, p. 120.

¹⁴ See *Fundamentals of Administration for Schools of Nursing*, Report of the Committee to Study Administration in Schools of Nursing. Published by the National League of Nursing Education, 1790 Broadway, New York City, 1940.

financial operations, security operations, accounting operations, and administrative operations. In other words Fayol's analysis holds for educational administration up to the point of defining the functions of administration.

The integral relation of means and ends makes it impossible to separate administration from the formulation of purposes. Purposes, if they are not mere castles in the air, can be formulated only in consideration of the means available for their realization. Since administration must be relied upon to supply the means, administration must participate in the formulation of purposes. Purposes range in comprehensiveness from the broad concepts of society's need for education, held by the clientele of a college as justifying the existence of the college, to the purposes of the specific acts performed in the operation of the program. Each operative activity, if it is a legitimate part of the program of the college, should have a specific purpose which is subsidiary to some more comprehensive purpose. It is a function of administration to harmonize all subsidiary purposes with the purpose of the institution as a whole. A policy is a plan or course of action designed to achieve some subsidiary purpose. Every plan or course of action involves many detailed procedures each of which must be correlated with the general plan or policy on the basis of a proper relation of purposes. Administration is, therefore, heavily involved in the formulation of purposes, policies, and procedures, from the inception of the general purpose or goal of the college to the realization of that purpose in the actual operation of the college, in all aspects of its program of action.

The scope of administrative functioning in a college or university, can be defined in terms of the following six functions:

1. Determining purposes and policies, including the harmonizing of all subsidiary purposes and policies with more inclusive ones.
2. Determining the activities, or procedures, necessary to carry out all purposes and policies.
3. Determining the qualifications of personnel necessary for the performance of the essential activities.
4. Determining the time necessary for the essential personnel achievement.
5. Determining the physical facilities necessary for personnel functioning.
6. Co-ordinating and integrating all of these into a dynamic unity which is an operating institution.

The first of these six functions establishes the pattern for all of the others. The whole institutional program, in terms of activities, personnel, and timing, as well as the essential physical facilities, must be set up in harmony with purposes and policies. The gamut of executive procedures, likewise, is subordinate to policies. Thus the formulation of purposes and policies, which may be termed the legislative function, is primary and fundamental in administration.

The concept of the scope of administrative functioning which is developed in this paper, it is believed, is complete. The six functions, if applied in every area of institutional activity, provide for every phase of administrative control. The reader can easily satisfy himself on this point if he will select any area of college activity to be administered, such as teaching, research, student personnel services, operation of the libraries, commercial activities, or financial activities, and then think through the essential administrative activity in terms of these six functions. Any officer who is responsible for the administration of any unit of institutional activity such as the registrar's office, the dean's office, or the bursar's office, will find, it is believed, that these six functions accurately represent the scope of his administrative functioning.

Most administrative officers, of course, perform many activities which are not truly administrative. The counseling of students, for example, which is commonly performed by administrative officers, is not an administrative activity. Counseling is an activity which must be administered. On the other hand, members of the personnel who are not administrative officers participate in the administrative process.

There has been much confusion in administrative thinking because of the failure to recognize the true scope of the process of administration. The much-discussed question of whether the faculty should participate in administration is an example. Of course the faculty should participate in the legislative function of administration by co-operative formulation of educational policies through general faculty and committee action. It is also appropriate, as well as common practice, for members of the faculty to participate in the judicial function of administration by serving on committees and councils which aid in interpreting policies and engage in a variety of adjudicating activities. The executive function, however, is a technical activity and administrative officers are the technical experts. For this reason, administrative officers must carry the responsibility for executive action. Use of the

time of members of the faculty on administrative committees is generally inefficient and a waste of human energy, because they are not as well qualified as the individual administrative officers to perform the tasks commonly assigned to them.

Good administration is a highly integrated process of formulating institutional purposes, policies, and procedures, and executing them with intelligent interpretations in application to specific situations. It involves the efficient utilization of the general and specialized knowledge available in the personnel, under the leadership of the chief administrative officer.

A Comparative Study of the Attitudes of Students, Parents, and Citizen Groups Toward Problem Situations Which Have Risen at the Ventura Junior College

LEO PAUL KIBBY

THE ATTITUDES of students, parents, and citizen groups are powerful factors in shaping and influencing school policies. Unless the attitudes of such groups at large are known and taken into account, individual attitudes may appear which are not representative of those of the total group, and which may affect unfavorably the desirable shaping of school policies as judged according to the standards which the total group would approve. At the Ventura Junior College certain problems have arisen because of the protests made by one or more people against class discussion of certain social issues of a controversial nature. The problem of this investigation was to determine the extent to which such protests represented the true feeling of students, parents, and citizen groups, (1) by comparing the attitudes of students, parents, and citizen groups toward permitting class discussions of major social issues that have concerned students at the Ventura Junior College; (2) by comparing the solutions the same groups prescribed to life situations directly related to the major social issues; and (3) by showing the relationship between the attitudes expressed and such factors as age, class, intelligence, sex, college preparatory or terminal status, lower division and upper division, political party affiliation or preference, religious membership or preference, signed versus unsigned questionnaires, family income, graduates of Ventura high schools or those graduating elsewhere, and conservatism and liberalism.

The problem is particularly important as one may determine who reviews the actions of state legislatures where the teaching of certain subjects has been made illegal; or who examines the rules and regulations that school boards have written into teachers' contracts; or who, finally, is interested in securing more complete information with re-

spect to such legislation or rules and regulations from those groups of people who should be able, in a democratic way, to express preferences.

Many related investigations were consulted and reviewed. From these it seems possible to conclude that students become more liberal in their attitudes as they progress in school, that boys on the average are more liberal than girls, that children are more liberal than their parents, Protestants than Catholics, those of higher intelligence than those of lower, and that little difference exists between those who are affiliated with the Republican party and those expressing preference for the Democratic party. Finally, as compared with the influence of the home upon the formation of children's attitudes, the school plays a minor role.

In order to ascertain the attitudes of students, parents, and citizen groups, it was necessary to construct an attitude questionnaire. This questionnaire had three parts: Part One consisted of twenty social issues; Part Two was made up of twenty life situations related to the twenty social issues; and Part Three included eighteen true-false questions taken from M. H. Harper's study dealing with liberalism and conservatism. The questions in Part Three were used as a basis not only for determining whether the subjects responding to the questionnaire evinced a tendency toward liberal, conservative, or neutral attitudes, but also for classifying the respondents into the same three groups for comparative purposes.

The social issues and life situations were selected with the assistance of a special committee composed of five teachers in the junior college. At least four of the five members agreed that each social issue had risen in class at the Ventura Junior College, and that a protest had been made from some source regarding the presentation of information in class on that issue. In each social issue the question was raised with respect to the desirability of class discussion of it "always," "frequently," "seldom," "never." If the subjects were "indifferent" with respect to the class discussion, they might so indicate. The answers "always" and "frequently" were considered liberal whereas "seldom" and "never" were interpreted as being conservative. Students indicated their views and also what they considered were those of their parents; parents did the same for themselves and their own children; and citizen groups expressed their own attitudes and also what they believed were the attitudes of Ventura Junior College students.

For each life situation, at least four of the committee were familiar with the actual situation being described, and agreed that the life situation applied to one of the social issues in Part One. In each life situation a problem was raised that might be adjusted by any one of five possible solutions which were given. Two of the solutions were liberal, two were conservative, and one was neutral. Students, parents, and citizen groups expressed their attitudes toward the problem in each life situation by checking one of the five solutions, and according to the method used in checking the social issues. Solutions were arranged under each life situation by random selection.

With respect to the true-false questions in Part Three of the questionnaire, a subject was considered to have a tendency toward liberalism if his score consisted of ten or more liberal responses; or conservative if his score was ten or more conservative responses; or neutral if his score was other than either of the two situations described.

The method of scoring employed in the investigation may be described as follows: The number of responses each group made for each of the five categories in the social issue was reduced to a percentage value. Thus, for example, if the responses of two hundred subjects who comprised a specific group were distributed as follows with respect to their attitude toward class discussion of a given social issue, always, ten; frequently, thirty; seldom, sixty; never, eighty; and indifferent twenty, the percentage values would indicate 20 per cent were liberal ("always," 5 per cent plus "frequently," 15 per cent), 70 per cent were conservative ("seldom," 30 per cent, plus "never," 40 per cent), and 10 per cent were neutral.

The same method was used in recording responses to the solutions to the life situations except that the percentage value was listed separately for each solution when results were described rather than by combination as was the case with respect to the social issues. In addition, space was available for the subject to indicate his own solution to the life situation if no given solution represented his viewpoint.

In order to indicate the significance of differences in percentages when comparing the responses of two different groups, the following general formula was used:

$$\sigma \text{ diff.} = \sqrt{\frac{P_1 q_1}{N_1} + \frac{P_2 q_2}{N_2}}$$

According to this formula, a difference of two times the probable

error of difference existing between two groups compared was considered as being significant.

The study was limited to 985 questionnaires returned by students attending the Ventura Junior College during the year 1940-1941, to 101 returned by parents of students who not only had signed the attitude questionnaire but who also had graduated either from the local junior high or senior high school, or both, and to fifty-one returned by members of local service organizations (known as citizen groups) such as the Rotary Club. One hundred and three students who were sons and daughters of the parents responding (known as "own" children) were selected from the original group of students in order to compare their responses directly with those of their parents.

The results of this study show that with respect to the class discussion of seventeen of the twenty social issues, students believed their parents would be predominantly liberal in their attitude and on three that they would be conservative. On eleven of the social issues a majority of "own" children reported that they thought their parents would be liberal; on eight, conservative; and on one, opinion was evenly divided. Parents were predominantly liberal on fifteen of the social issues and conservative on five, three of which were among those also indicated by students and "own" children.

A majority of parents believed their children would be liberal on fourteen and conservative on six of the social issues. "Own" children were predominantly liberal on sixteen and conservative on four, three of which were those indicated by their parents. A majority of the citizen groups believed students would be liberal toward class discussion of fifteen, conservative on three, and equally divided on two, of the social issues. Students revealed predominantly liberal attitudes on sixteen and conservative on four social issues, three of which were those also indicated by citizen groups. Citizen groups showed, on the average, liberal attitudes on fifteen and conservative on five of the social issues.

The four major groups in order of diminishing liberality of attitude toward class discussion of the social issues were citizen groups, students, parents, and "own" children.

In the solutions to the life situation, students indicated correctly sixteen and incorrectly four of the solutions they believed their parents would favor when the choice was compared with the parent group

used in the study. "Own" children were correct with respect to fifteen and wrong on five of the solutions. Parents indicated correctly seventeen and incorrectly three of the solutions their children favored. Citizen groups were right on twelve and wrong on eight of the solutions favored by students. On eleven of the solutions, students, parents, "own" children, and citizen groups were in common agreement, and upon nine there were one or more differences between groups.

Common agreement by students, parents, "own" children, and citizen groups existed for the most liberal solution to the life situations related to birth control, sterilization, and government ownership. Each group believed that information on the methods of birth control should be made available to all people, that all unfortunates, such as feeble-minded people, should submit to compulsory sterilization, and that the project on the Ventura river should be completed with federal funds and remain permanently owned and supervised by the Federal Government. With reference to city government, each major group agreed upon the liberal solution which stressed the teaching of the view that the City Council should warn the members of the police department that continued negligence on their part would necessitate their being removed from their positions. Each major group favored the neutral solution to the life situations related to the Bible, public office, Fascism, and N.Y.A. With reference to the Bible stress was placed upon teaching the view that both science and the Bible are right; with respect to the public office the local newspaper was encouraged to deal with the issue by means of "pro" and "con" views; both the good and bad qualities of Fascism should be stressed with equal merit; and with reference to the issuance of N.Y.A. assignments, both groups (native American white students and foreign students) should be given equal consideration. Toward the solutions relating to the flag salute, military draft, and labor, the major groups were most conservative. Each group believed the religious body should be required by law to salute the flag, that, in a major way, the school should give every active support to the plan of the Federal Government with regard to compulsory military training, and, with reference to labor, the non-member should be allowed to work and be given legal protection from interference by the labor organization.

In the selection of solutions to the life situations the position favored, the group favoring, and the number of times agreed upon

were as follows:

1. Most liberal: students, three; parents, three; "own" children, three; citizen groups, four.
2. Liberal: students, two; parents, five; "own" children, three; citizen groups, four.
3. Neutral: students, ten; parents, eight; "own" children, ten; citizen groups, seven.
4. Conservative: students, one; parents, one; "own" children, one; citizen groups, one.
5. Most conservative: students, four; parents, three; "own" children, three; citizen groups, four.

The four groups in order of diminishing liberality for the solutions favored were parents, citizen groups, "own" children, and students.

CONCLUSIONS

The data obtained in this investigation permit the following conclusions concerning differences between sub-groups studied with respect to class discussion of the twenty social issues:

1. The order of liberality for each class in its attitude toward class discussion of the twenty social issues was as follows: fourteenth grade, Specials, thirteenth, twelfth, and eleventh. Upper division students were, on the average, more liberal than lower division students. Thus, a tendency toward liberality appears to be related to year in school.
2. Eleventh grade girls were slightly more liberal than eleventh grade boys; thirteenth grade boys and girls were evenly divided; in other classes, boys were more liberal than girls. In the combined group, boys reported more liberal attitudes than did girls.
3. Republican students were consistently more liberal than Democratic students.
4. Liberal, neutral, and conservative boys were slightly more liberal than were the girls in the respective groups.
5. In order of liberality for students classified according to liberalism-conservatism scores were liberals, conservatives, and neutrals.
6. In order of liberality for students in the income groups were income groups high, low, and medium.¹
7. Protestant students tended to be more liberal than Catholic.

¹ The low income group represented that group where the annual family income was under \$2,000; the medium, \$2,000 to \$4,000; high, \$4,000 and above.

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8. The order of liberality for the intelligence groups was, in general, high, average, and low.²

9. The order of liberality for the age groups was older, medium, and younger students.³

10. The college preparatory group was more liberal than the terminal.

11. Those who signed the questionnaire were, on the average, more liberal than those who did not sign.

12. Those who graduated from schools other than Ventura tended to be more liberal than those who graduated from Ventura schools.

13. Fathers tended to be more liberal than mothers.

14. Republican parents were, on the average, more liberal than Democratic parents.

15. The usual order of liberality for parent groups, classified on the basis of liberalism-conservatism scores, was liberals, neutrals, and conservatives.

16. The order of liberality for parents by income groups was low and medium which were approximately the same, and high.

17. Comparison of attitudes of parents with different educational training resulted in approximately the same percentage of liberal attitudes for those with elementary or college education, and somewhat more conservative attitudes for those with high school education.

18. Republican citizen groups tended to be more liberal than Democratic groups.

19. The order of liberality for citizen groups (on the basis of liberalism-conservatism scores) was liberals, conservatives, and neutrals.

20. High income group among citizen groups tended to reveal more liberal attitudes than low income.⁴

21. Citizen group men with a college education tended to be more liberal than those with only high school or elementary education.

22. Protestant adults showed more liberal attitudes than Catholic.

With reference to the solutions to the life situations, the data secured in this study allow the following conclusions:

1. General agreement exists on the specific solution selected to each

² Low intelligence group was below 90; average, 90 to 109; high, 110 and above.

³ Younger students, 17 years and under; medium, 18 to 20; older, 21 and over.

⁴ Low income for citizen groups represented an annual family income under \$3,000; high, \$3,000 and above.

life situation by the various groups appearing in the investigation.

2. In approximately 50 per cent of the cases, the solution favored was the neutral or compromise one.

In the light of the results of this investigation, the following general conclusions are added:

1. When students are asked to indicate what they consider are their parents' attitudes on certain problems, their responses tend to develop into a pattern similar to that which occurs when they are asked to state their own attitudes on the same problem. This situation, likewise, tends to prevail when parents are asked to express what they think are their children's attitudes, and when citizen groups indicate what they believe are the attitudes of students.

2. Parents tend to have more liberal attitudes with respect to social issues and related life situations than their own children think they have; likewise, children tend to be more liberal than their parents think they are.

3. Students, parents, "own" children, and citizen groups tend to be liberal on the discussion of social issues in class, yet, in the choice of a solution to a problem appearing in an actual life situation related to the social issue, each group has a tendency to favor a compromise solution in approximately 50 per cent of the cases.

4. Parents know their children's attitudes better than the children know their parents' attitudes.

5. Parents tend slightly to believe they are more liberal than their children; likewise, children believe they are more liberal than their parents.

6. Students in the eleventh grade class indicate by their attitudes that they are, on the average, more conservative than any other class in the four year junior college.

7. Students 17 years of age and under are, on the average, the most conservative of the age groups studied.

8. Those students with an intelligence quotient below 90 are, on the average, the most conservative of all mental ability groups.

9. Citizen groups belonging to the Democratic party or to the Catholic religious faith tend to be the most conservative of the adult groups studied.

10. Those parents with a high school education tend to be more conservative than those with only an elementary training or those with college training, whereas the latter tend to be the most liberal.

One limitation of the present study was the fact that it was concerned with only one junior college. However, it would be difficult, if not impossible, to find another institution in which the same specific social issues and life situations were confronted as were used in this study.

Another weakness was the fact that the parent group responding belonged primarily to one religious faith; hence, there is reason to question the validity of comparisons with respect to attitudes of parents of different religious faiths.

The great length of the questionnaire caused many parents and citizen groups to neglect to answer it. Thus, the attitudes determined from the small number of parents and citizen groups responding may not be representative.

While not a valid criticism of the questionnaire certain views were expressed to the investigator either orally or in written form to the effect that too many of the issues dealt with subjects, the securing of attitudes toward which was of no concern to the school. This criticism in the opinion of the investigator would seem to give further justification to the study.

It was unfortunate that a high percentage of parents failed to indicate what their children's attitudes were with respect to certain problems because the resulting conclusions are to that extent invalidated. Parents may have failed to indicate what their children's attitudes were either because they did not know, as a few admitted, or because they believed their children should be privileged to speak for themselves, as others recommended.

A test of reliability is the consistency with which a measuring instrument actually measures that which it claims to measure. The consistency with which the various groups expressed themselves on the social issues and solutions to the life situation was such as to permit one to state that a definite pattern existed. Such pattern is evidence of reliability. Another test of reliability may be made by comparing the results obtained in one study with the results of other studies of a similar nature in which reliability has been demonstrated. In the present investigation many of the results agree closely with those which have been found by other investigators.

A weakness of most attitude investigations is the fact that their validity has not been established. To establish the validity of an investigation of attitudes, it would be necessary to determine whether

individuals actually do the things they claim they would do in the situation given. Since the identical situation is never possible to reproduce, the determination of validity is difficult. With the present investigation students expressed attitudes on problems which had actually come within their experience, and no evidence appeared to indicate that the attitudes they expressed were not true ones. The fact, too, that students, parents, and citizen groups were privileged to reply anonymously would increase the validity of the findings.

From the point of view of school administration, the results of this study indicate that protests from a single source concerning the discussion in class of a particular issue of a controversial nature, are likely to represent the view of a minority group. Furthermore, inasmuch as it is unlikely that such protests represent the feeling of students, parents, and citizen groups at large, it would be poor educational policy to make curriculum changes purely on the basis of such protests in order to be relieved of any pressure which might come from the protesting minority. In the investigator's opinion, if curriculum changes are made in response to protests by certain individuals or groups, and through such change expression and discussion are suppressed, the practice would be distinctly undemocratic. Dissenting opinions should be heard and tolerated, but change which affects the whole group should not be made only for the purpose of satisfying the demands of special interests whose wishes are not representative of the whole group.

The fact that parents' and students' attitudes in this study were very similar is significant because it reveals clearly how important the home is in shaping the attitudes of children. If one obtained students' attitudes on any particular issue similar to those used in this investigation the chances are that such attitudes would correlate highly with those parents would express if they were called upon to do so. Likewise, parents' attitudes would correlate highly with those of their children. On the other hand, when students' attitudes, as expressed by themselves, are compared with their attitudes as expressed by citizen groups, less reliance can be placed upon the accuracy with which citizen groups are able to identify students' attitudes. Hence, citizen groups' views as to what students' attitudes are should not be regarded as being as reliable as students' attitudes which have been indicated by parents.

Are Grades and Grading Systems Comparable from Institution to Institution?

WINONA M. PERRY

UPON THE request of the executive council of the Grand Chapter of Alpha Lambda Delta, a scholastic society for freshman women, the writer studied the problem of discovering a comparable basis for all grades and grading systems in vogue in those universities and colleges which have a chapter of this honorary fraternity. Associated with her in this study were three faculty members in the University of Nebraska, Drs. C. C. Camp, W. A. Spurr, and D. A. Worcester, all of whom were studying similar problems under the general direction of the university Committee on Instructional Policies and Practices.

Certain information concerning every institution became available through a study of catalogues or in connection with letters requesting pertinent data. Of the forty-five institutions comprising the chapter roll of this fraternity, thirty-four responded to our request with the complete data needed from each institution. Certain limitations of these data should be noted:

- (1) The time period which was covered by the reported grades:
(See Table I)

6 weeks only (first semester, 1939-40)	1
1 semester	17
1 year	15
1 ten year period (1927-37)	1
	—
	34

- (2) The institution, or college, which was included in the reported grades: (Table II)

Entire institution	26
College(s): One	6
Two	2
	—
	34

- (3) The number of credit hours per grade, whether from one to five or more, was not indicated.

Study of the catalogues and the letters revealed that in 42 of the 45 institutions, the grades are called, A, B, C, and D (Table III). Three of these (#'s 12, 15, 35) use the plus sign (+), while for purposes of averaging, #'s 1, 19, and 26 do likewise. In one (#29) the minus sign (—) is used. Another institution (#33) is unique in that it uses 3, 2, 1, 0 in contrast to the more frequently appearing letter system. Institution (#28) uses the percentage system which has the passing grade of 60. These, however, are grouped into the 90's, the 80's, the 70's, and the 60's by each instructor for each class as a part of the semester report. Another (#34) states that in classes of any size whatever grading is done "on the curve." The quality points which indicate the relative weightings of the grading system used, with the total points which constitute the minimum number required for graduation in a given institution, are presented in Table V. It is worthy of note that 36 of these 45 institutions weight their highest grade by 3, while six are weighting theirs by 4, with the resulting minimum totals required for graduation becoming 120, or 240 respectively.

The actual number of grades reported by each institution is stated, to the nearest thousand, in Table VI. The range is from 2,000 to 285,000.

From 2,000 to 39,000 includes 24 institutions.

From 65,000 to 285,000 includes four institutions.

Six institutions did not report the total number of grades, for their reports were expressed in terms of per cents only.

Of the 28 institutions reporting, the median number of grades is 17,000.

The term, *grading labels*, emphasizes the fact (Table IV) that the passing grades are more than comparable, for they are closely similar, in fact almost identical from institution to institution. The differentiating features consist of the presence or absence of an E (Condition) and/or of an I (Incomplete, though passing) in the grading practices of an institution.

The display of these grades, or grading labels (in per cents), is graphed in Table VII. The following statistics are worthy of note:

Letter or Equivalent	Range		Median %
	%	%	
A	3.5 to 22.5		14.0
B	22.5 to 41.0		32.0
C	27.0 to 48.0		34.8
D	7.0 to 21.0		11.0
F (or F, E)	1.5 to 16.0		5.5

The form of the distribution for any one institution can be drawn by connecting the location points for such on each of the grade scales. The most normal form of the distribution for passing grades seems to be that of #12; while those institutions which deviate most widely from such form of the distribution are #34 and #41.

The charting of these grading labels might well become the basis, or yardstick, against which the per cent of each grade in a given institution could be placed. In the event that other universities and colleges would add their grade frequencies (in per cents) to this chart, such could become an instrument which a registrar might use as a rather crude means of calibrating the grades of students who desire to transfer from those institutions.

TABLE I
PERIOD COVERED BY REPORTS OF GRADES IN 34 INSTITUTIONS

AMOUNT	INSTITUTION
w=winter (first) semester	#
s=spring (second) semester	
1927-37	5
w1936	19
1937-38	41
w1937	33
1938-39	2-9-14-21-34-35-36-38-40-45
Year 1939	1
w1938	6-10-26-32
s1939	15-18-28
1939-40	11
w1939	7-12-23-43
w1939 (6 weeks only)	3
1940-41	30-39
w1940	20-24-37
s1941	4

TABLE II

INSTITUTION OR COLLEGES INCLUDED IN THE GRADES REPORTED

Entire institution: 26 reports, with three exceptions:

#39, #41 (Reports are the average of grades in upper and in lower division courses.)

#28 (Reports include grades of all classes with 20+ students per class. This includes 85% of all of the grades in this institution.)

College(s):

A&S: Institutions: #37-19-20-37-41

A&S and Eng: #9

A&S and L: #24

TABLE III

GRADING CODE, AS NOTED IN CATALOGUES AND LETTERS FROM
45 INSTITUTIONS

	D	C	B	A	INSTITUTIONS			
1:	(60-69)	(70-79)	(80-89)	(90-99)	33 reports.			
1a:	(61-70)	(71-80)	(81-90)	(91-100)	#36-35			
2:	(65-74)	(75-84)	(85-94)	(95-100)	#19			
2a:	(70-76)	(77-84)	(85-92)	(93-100)	#1			
2b:	65	75	85	95	#26			
3:	o	1	2	3	#33			
4:	Omits letters; uses o to 100, grouped in 60's, 70's, 80's, 90's.				#28			
5:	D, D+	C, C+	B, B+	A, A+	#12-15-35			
	(5 point intervals)							
6:	D (60-65)	C- (66-72)	C (73-79)	B- (80-84)	B (85-89)	A- (90-94)	A (95-)	#29
7:	P	B	A	H				#34

TABLE IV

GRADING LABELS, AS NOTED IN CATALOGUES AND LETTERS FROM
45 INSTITUTIONS

GRADING LABELS:	1/	2/	3/	4/	5/	6/	7/	8/	9/
PASSING GRADES:	A B C D	A B C D	A B C D	A B C D	(95-) A+ (90-) A (85-) B+ (80-) B (75-) C+ (70-) C (65-) D+ (60-) D	A B C D	A- B- C- D	3 2 1 o	90+ H (Honor) 80+ A 70+ B 60+ P (Passing)
Passing though incomplete:	I	...	I	...	I	I	...	I	I
SUB-PASSING GRADES:	E F	E F	...	F	E F	E F	-1 -2 (50)	...	C (Condition) D's+F's
Reporting institutions:	12	4	10	2	3	—	1	1	1 (N=34)
Nonreporting institutions:	5	—	4	1	—	1	—	—	— (N=11)

LEGEND: Grading Label 1/ is employed in twelve of the reporting, and in five of the non-reporting institutions. This grading label (1/) includes four passing grades (A, B, C, D with I as "Incomplete, though passing") and two sub-passing grades (E described as "Condition" and F as "Failure").

TABLE V
QUALITY POINTS, AND TOTAL POINTS REQUIRED FOR GRADUATION

	QUALITY POINTS (Per Grade Assigned)						GRADUATION REQUIREMENT
	*F	E	D	C	B	A	
i	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	120 (124, 125, 128) 36 reports
ii	-2	-1	1	2	3	4	240+ #24-30-32-38-44-45
iii	-2	-1	0	2	4	6	#12
	F	E	D	C-C	B-B	A-A	
iv	0	0	1	2 3	4 5	6 7	#29
v	80% of all grades must equal 70 or above.						#28
vi	% per semester must equal 75+.						#35

*F = -1 in those institutions where E is not used.

TABLE VI
GRADE FREQUENCIES

F (To nearest thousand)	INSTITUTION #
2	6-18
3	11
4	4-21
5	35
6	7-37
.	.
9	36
.	.
11	15-45
12	2
13	0
14	20
.	.
20	23
21	5
22	3
23	14
24	32
25	26
26	28
.	.
28	39
.	.
39	30-33
.	.
65	24
.	.
73	38 (Quarter System)
.	.
78	34
.	.
285	40

Not stated: #1-10-12-19-41-43

TABLE VII

Frequencies (in per cents) of: (1) Each passing-grade—D, C, B, A. (2) Sum of sub-passing grades—F (Failure) and E (Condition) as reported by 34 of the 45 institutions having an Alpha Lambda Delta chapter. (Each college, or university, is indicated on each scale by a code number.)

%	F	D	C	B	A	%
48			'41			48
:			:			:
45			'21			45
44						44
43			'34			43
42			'6			42
41				'35		41
40			'24			40
39			'2			39
38			'39			38
37			'4			37
36			'10	'36		36
			'23	'415		
			'18-30-32	'11-45		
			'1			
35			'19-45	'24		35
			'12-40			
34				'33-34		34
				'2-19		
33						33
32			'14-26			32
			'11-15-28	'12-30-32-41		
			'35-36-38	'10		
31			'5	'26		31
			'7	'7-14-40		
30			'20	'23		30
			'9	'5-37-43		
29			'43			29
				'1-18-38		
28				'20-21		28
27			'3	'6		27
26				'33-37		26
				'3		
25						25
24						24
23						23
				'34	'43	
22						22
21		'34			'11-33	21
					'20	
20			'6			20
19			'40			19
18			'1		'9	18
			'18		'26-45	
					'36	
17						17

TABLE VII—continued

%	F	D	C	B	A	%
16	'3	'3 '38			'19-32-35-40 '37 '7-30 '5-15	16 15 14
15						
14	'40	'5			'2-4-10-14	13
13	'38	'21-33 '7-23 '15-26 '12-37			'1-24 '3-28 '18-38-39	12
12						
11	'37	'32 '14			'23	11
10		'19-20-28-30-35 '2-10-39			'21 '41	10
9	'34	'36-45 '4-11			'12	9
8	'28(F+E+I)	'24 '6-20				8
7	'5-7-12-18-26	'9-43-41 '14-23				7
6		'1				6
5	'19					
4	'30-33 '15-43 '10					5
3	'2-39 '21-36-41 '11-24				'6-34	4
2	'4-9-32-45 '35					3
1						2
0						1
						0

An Evaluation of Two Methods of Teaching College Freshmen the Mechanics of English Composition

MARK KARP

THE TEACHING of English composition has for some time been the subject of controversy among instructors in college English and others interested in the field. Among other phases of the subject discussed in articles presented in *The English Journal* are the subject matter and methodology to be employed in teaching the course. It is significant that these articles, which present points of view based upon experience and opinion, as well as doctoral studies which are almost exclusively surveys of current practices, offer little in the matter of evidence obtained from research in, and testing of, classroom practice.

At least the first term of English composition at many colleges is given over to instruction and skills in the mechanics of writing. It is the consensus of opinion among those interested in and concerned with instruction in English that students should master the mechanics of writing. "The teaching of English . . . should give them (students) habits of accuracy in both oral and written work and so thorough a mastery of a small body of grammatical and rhetorical principles that each one will be able to say with confidence, 'That is right, and I know it is right.'"¹ "Grammar and punctuation, then, are elements of expression. A knowledge of the functions they perform in the communication of meaning is a valuable asset to anyone."² "There is undoubtedly a place in the curriculum for a thorough study of those grammatical principles which seem to govern all language because they also govern the logic of thought, and hence of communication."³

One of the recommendations of the committee working under the chairmanship of Oscar J. Campbell on college English is that "a col-

¹ Blaisdell, Thomas C., *Ways to Teach English*, New York: Doubleday, Doran, 1930, p. 1.

² Parker, Roscoe E., *The Principles and Practice of Teaching English*, New York: Prentice-Hall, 1937, p. 166.

³ Leonard, Sterling A., *Current English Usage*, The National Council of Teachers of English, Chicago: Inland Press, 1932, p. 187.

lege entrant should possess such a knowledge of grammar as is indispensable to accuracy of expression."⁴

Yet many students coming to college do not have this knowledge. To meet this situation, colleges are offering grammar in their English composition courses. Of 175 of the member colleges and universities of the North Central Association, which reported the content of their composition courses, 82 per cent considered grammar a legitimate part of the content of freshman English.⁵ In an article which is a discussion of the replies to certain parts of a questionnaire calling for information upon the aims and practices prevalent in the handling of freshman composition, Notley S. Maddox draws the following conclusion:

1. "There is deep and prevalent dissatisfaction with the state of unpreparedness in which the freshman is commonly found and a belief, in some colleges at least, that this state is yearly growing worse.

2. "There is a disposition to ascribe this condition to the superficiality of the training afforded by most secondary schools.

3. "There is general agreement that little can be done toward the attainment of higher values of English composition until the freshman is first put in possession of the elementary tools of thought and expression."⁶

In a study which purports to make a careful analysis of the work done in the field of English composition in teachers colleges, the investigator found that "the teachers of composition have one objective in common, the teaching of fundamentals."⁷ "Weakness in fundamentals seems to be the greatest difficulty that the teachers of English composition have to overcome; 50 per cent of the teachers gave this as one of their chief difficulties."⁸

In a report on Freshman English procedure in the United States, the following conclusions, based on returns from 232 questionnaires sent to colleges of 500 or more students, are stated:

⁴ Campbell, Oscar James, *The Teaching of College English*, The National Council of Teachers of English, New York: D. Appleton-Century, 1934.

⁵ Laird, Carolina L., *A Study of Freshman English Content As Offered in the Colleges and Universities of the North Central Association*, University of Oklahoma, 1936.

⁶ Maddox, Notley S., "Thoughts from Thirty-Four Colleges Concerning English Composition," *The English Journal (College Edition)*, XXVII, No. 8 (October, 1938) p. 661.

⁷ Meadows, Leon R., *A Study of the Teaching of English Composition in Teachers Colleges of the United States*, No. 211, Contributions to Education, New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University.

⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 24.

1. Placement tests are becoming more popular.
2. There is a widespread and growing tendency to section students according to ability.
3. English clinics have been inaugurated.⁹

Investigators reporting on a sectioning-according-to-ability-pattern at Ohio State University state that by sectioning their students they have a definite point of attack. They felt that the difficulties in mechanics being comparatively specific should yield to intensive teaching effort.¹⁰ Although sectioning according to ability has been going on for some time, there is little evidence to indicate its effectiveness as over against the older pattern of heterogeneous grouping. As a matter of fact, the studies which have been made and quoted thus far show that conditions are still unfavorable in the teaching and learning of English composition. The situation is presented by an investigator who, after he has observed what is going on, states: "Many individuals who eventually graduate never achieve the competence of the average freshman in the mechanics of written English. Lockstep education—even when ameliorated by the device of ability grouping as previously described, which latter situation is, however, the exception rather than the rule—has many sins for which it must answer. Not only are the inferior students placed before impossible hurdles, but, more seriously, the superior student is required to mark time—a living sacrifice to the semester-hour unit fetish of measuring progress."¹¹

There has been of late another method of teaching freshmen English composition—the individual conference method. In his book, *The Fine Art of Writing*, H. R. Shepherd writes:

"It should be said first, I think, that effective composition teaching begins with the individual personal conference and continues by means of it . . . Try to have the student see his fault before you have to name it to him. The poorest writers will need frequent visits, the best will want them."¹² Thomas C. Blaisdell states, "Until it is

⁹ Taylor, Warner, "A National Survey of Conditions in Freshman English," *Bureau of Educational Research Bulletin*, No. 11, University of Wisconsin (May, 1929), pp. 29, 31.

¹⁰ Rae, Florence J., and Pressey, S. L., "A Comparison of 'Honor' and 'Zero' Sections in English Composition," *Educational Research Bulletin*, Ohio State University, VI (April 27, 1927), p. 198.

¹¹ Remmers, H. H. and Others, "Concerning Freshman Composition—Tangibles and Intangibles of Achievement," *Studies in Higher Education*, Purdue University, XXIV (October, 1934), p. 23.

¹² Pp. 35-36.

understood that the English teacher must have far more opportunity for conference . . . , English teaching will not be satisfactory."¹³

One of the most significant recommendations made by a committee investigating conditions in college English is that "every student during his freshman year should receive instruction in composition fitted to the intellectual level which his entrance test shows him to have attained."¹⁴ There is an implication in this statement that individual instruction is desirable. In elaborating on this recommendation, the committee reports: "The first (tendency in the teaching of English) is one toward individualization of the instruction, toward recognizing differences in the natural interests and the intellectual abilities of the freshman. This is an admission that writing is a skill that must be fitted to the personality of each individual."¹⁵

Harold H. Scudder reports the inauguration of a plan at the University of New Hampshire. It was devised "to weed out those students who are already prepared and to get down to the relatively few who are manifestly deficient in elementary English; to determine who these last are, what their defects are, individually, and then to furnish each such student with specific tutoring until his deficiency has been removed."

"The weeding out of the prepared students" was done by means of the Iowa Placement Test. "The bulk of those who in writing were found lacking in grammar and diction, punctuation, spelling, capitalization, vocabulary, or sentence structure were divided into a series of groups averaging 16 students each, and these groups were turned over to the members of the freshman English staff. The groups have never met as classes. The members meet the instructor as many times a week as possible and are specifically tutored to remedy their shortcomings. The shortcomings differ, of course, from student to student, and the character of the instruction differs with them."¹⁶

The evidence shows a definite trend toward the individualization of instruction in English composition. The most frequently used device for such instruction is the conference method. Although those who report on the conference method regard it favorably, there are few statistical data and little careful analysis of the procedure as a

¹³ *Op. cit.*, p. 250.

¹⁴ Campbell, Oscar James, *op. cit.*, p. 26.

¹⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 45.

¹⁶ "A Functional English Course," *The Journal of Higher Education*, XI, No. 8.

teaching device as compared with the traditional entire-class-in-attendance method.

This experiment, conducted in the State Teachers College of Paterson, New Jersey, sought to evaluate two methods of teaching college freshmen the mechanics of English Composition. The students involved in this experiment were divided into four groups: two of 27 each, one of 26, and one of 24. Because of illness and withdrawals, the classes finally numbered one of 27, one of 23, and two of 21. The group of 27 and one of the groups of 21 were designated as the Experimental Groups and the other two as the Control Groups. Each of two instructors taught one Control and one Experimental Section. The members of each of the Control Groups met three times a week with the entire group in attendance, for fifty minutes at each session. The Experimental Groups met three times a week for individual interviews. Five students—each for ten minute interviews—were scheduled for each fifty minute period. Two additional students were scheduled for each period in the event of absences. The Control Groups met for *group instruction*, and the Experimental Groups met for *individual instruction*.

By the end of the semester, in January, 1941, the Control Groups had met for twenty-seven class sessions devoted to instruction in the mechanics of English Composition. The time of the twenty-seven class sessions devoted to instruction in the mechanics of English Composition was divided among the students of the Experimental Groups. By the end of the term each student of the Experimental Groups had met with his instructor seven times. Thus, the students of the Control Groups had met with their instructor for a maximum total of 27×50 minutes, or 1,350 minutes; the students of the Experimental Groups had met with their instructor for a maximum total of 7×10 minutes, or 70 minutes.

The testing program consisted of the administering of the following tests:

Intelligence: 1. The American Council on Education Psychological Examination, given in September, 1940.

Diagnosis: 2. The Co-operative English Test, Form 1937, given in September, 1940.

Achievement: 3. The Co-operative English Test, Form O, given in September, 1940.

Achievement: 4. The Co-operative English Test, Form P, given in January, 1941.

Retention: 5. The Co-operative English Test, Form O, given in April, 1941.

These tests, except for Form 1937, which was used for diagnosis, were administered to obtain evidence as to the intelligence of the students and a record of their achievement at the beginning of the experiment, at the termination of the teaching period, and at the conclusion of the experiment.

All the students wrote compositions on subjects suggested by their instructors in western civilization, American government, and the psychology of personality development.

On a bulletin board easily accessible to all the students involved in this experiment, the topics for their themes were posted. Each student was required to select a topic for every assignment.

Each of the students wrote five papers during the term, such an arrangement permitting approximately a three-week period of preparation for, and writing of, each paper.

All students completed the following assignments.

1. Write
 - a. a summary of 500 words.
 - b. a short, one-paragraph summary of the same material.
2. Express an opinion in 500 words.
3. Compare two treatments of the same subject in 500 words.
4. Write a criticism in 500 words.
5. Write a term paper of at least 1,000 words necessitating research in the library.

For each assignment a separate list of topics was posted. For the last assignment, the term paper, the students were not limited to any topic.

All the students used the same textbook.

The Control Groups studied all of the exercises on the mechanics of English composition in their textbook. Corrected themes were returned to the class for correction in class.

The students of the Experimental Groups studied only those exercises on those items of which the diagnostic test revealed a lack of knowledge on the part of the student. These exercises were supplemented by composition errors in mechanics which the students cor-

rected. The students met their instructor at individual conferences of not more than 10 minutes for instruction in the mechanics of English composition. When the students were not in conference with their instructors, they were free to do what they wished with their time.

To obtain descriptions of overt behavior of the students involved in the experiment, three critic judges visited the classes. Each of two critics visited the same two classes the first and third months of the experiment. The third critic visited the four classes the second and fourth months of the experiment.

Nine conclusions were formulated on the basis of this investigation to evaluate a group method and an individual method of teaching college freshmen the mechanics of English composition.

These conclusions were formulated with the purpose of answering the three following questions, which were the specific problems of this investigation.

1. To what degree, if any, is the one method superior to the other?
 2. In what respects is the one method superior to the other?
 3. Which method is the better for mastering the mechanics of English composition for students of varying abilities as revealed by standardized tests?
- I. Both the Group Method and the Individual Method produce gains in the knowledge of the mechanics of English composition.
 - II. The Individual Method requires relatively less class time than the Group Method to produce a larger increase in the knowledge of the mechanics of English Composition.
 - III. Under the Individual Method the more intelligent students make greater gains than the less intelligent students.
 - IV. Less intelligent students under the Group Method make greater gains than less intelligent students under the Experimental Method.
 - V. Students above average in achievement in the mechanics of English composition before teaching begins make greater gains under the Individual Method than students above average in achievement make under the Group Method.
 - VI. Students below average in achievement in the mechanics of English composition before teaching begins make greater gains under the Group Method than students below average in achievement make under the Individual Method.

The following conclusions, which are based upon the subjective evaluations of critics, are presented in an attempt to answer the question: In what respects is the one method superior to the other? The investigator, although realizing the limitations of such subjective evidence, believes that some value may be derived from observations of overt behavior.

- VII. The Individual Method appears to offer to the student more challenge than the Group Method.
- VIII. The Group Method permits students to compare work with one another. This opportunity, which is a source of interest, is denied to the students of the Individual Method.
- IX. In the class situation some students sit quietly and make no contribution; in the conference situation every student participates by discussing his own difficulties.

The findings of this investigation suggest several steps which may be taken either by the institution in which the investigation was carried on or by other colleges or universities where the value of the conference method of teaching college freshmen the mechanics of English composition is being considered.

1. All freshmen should be tested for achievement in the mechanics of English composition before they are assigned to a class in composition. This testing should serve as means of diagnosing the students' difficulties in the mechanics of composition.
2. The test taken by the student should be turned over to the instructor in English composition who will be in charge of the instruction of that student.
3. The results of this experiment suggest that the students in composition should be divided into two groups: one consisting of average and above-average students, the other of below-average students. The higher group should receive individualized instruction, and the lower group should receive group instruction with as much treatment of individual problems as possible.
4. All students should receive instruction in those items of the mechanics of English composition of which students show a lack of knowledge when they are tested.
5. After the assignments have been completed, the student should be retested. If the student does not reach the standards set by his college or instructor, he should be given further instruction.

6. The instructor in charge of the teaching of mechanics of composition should be placed in a position to examine papers written by students in his charge. Thus he may note whether and to what extent the instruction in the mechanics of English composition is being carried over to the student's written work. Moreover, the instructor should be enabled to discuss with the student errors in mechanics made in his written work.
7. Since considerable time is available to the superior students who receive individualized instruction, other English courses should be provided for them.

The Universities and Education in Business

CHARLES H. SANDAGE

THE TENDENCY toward increased emphasis on the utilitarian or practical in our institutions of higher learning has prompted criticisms from many sources. Since business education is one of the newer additions to the list of "practical" fields of study in our universities, it has had more than its share of criticism. It has been criticized as non-cultural, dealing in the immoral, not conducive to straight thinking or intellectual development, devoid of mental discipline, and lacking in the development of the art of living. Attitudes toward the "practical" have been mirrored by such comments as "the saw and hammer school," the "pencil pushing" department, and the "hook 'em and skin 'em" college.

These criticisms are not without foundation. Business, or an important segment of business, always has been and still is immoral. One of the apocryphal books of the Bible refers to business practice, "As a nail sticketh fast between the joinings of the stone, so doth sin stick fast between buying and selling." Howard Scott gives a more modern version of such sin when he says, "A criminal is a person with predatory instincts who has not sufficient capital to form a corporation." And if we want an abundance of proof that much of modern business is sinful, all we need do is to read reports of the Dept. of Justice, the Bureau of Standards, the Federal Trade Commission, and the Food and Drug Administration.

Because of such immorality in business, many educational men have considered this field low caste. This has caused too many of our intellectuals to "walk by on the other side" of education in business. It seems not to matter that business practices touch the life of every citizen of the country or that the intellectuals might be in a better position than any others to improve bad practices. Instead, too many educators, or rather men in educational institutions, withdraw themselves from any visible contact with the sordid and bask in the glory of their own high office. They studiously avoid getting their own garments soiled and often urge that our youth be deprived of a study of the realities of business, social, and political life. The same attitude has applied to other fields as well: birth control, social diseases, the

field of politics, the study of evolution, the study of economics, to mention only a few. No wonder our educational institutions are dubbed the cloistered halls.

So business is immoral. Business education is also, in too many cases, devoid of mental discipline just the same as is mathematics or chemistry. It is not conducive to straight thinking any more than is history or philosophy. And it can be non-cultural just as courses in art or music or English can be non-cultural. The degree to which almost any course develops mental discipline, straight thinking, or cultural bearing depends much more upon the instructor and the student than upon the subject.

Recognizing all these negative aspects of business and business education, let us consider the opportunities of business education and the heights to which it can rise.

In a democracy probably the two most important fields of study are government and business. In a democracy, sovereignty rests with the people. Freedom is a cardinal element: freedom to say what we please, to read what we want to read, to listen to music which pleases us regardless of the ethnical background of the composer. If we do not have such freedom, the so-called cultural subjects in our schools may be eliminated or altered to serve as propaganda tools to mold and distort our thinking.

In a real democracy the common welfare of all citizens is recognized; well-being in temporal, in spiritual and in cultural affairs. Emphasis is placed on group action. Individual well-being flows from the well-being of the group. Hence the educational philosophy in a democracy must be a social philosophy. Service to society and a good neighbor viewpoint must be even more evident than the development of individual happiness as such. The absence of this social viewpoint has probably been a potent factor in making possible our Pendergasts, Hagues, Thompsons, Talmadges, Lodges, and Fishes.

The lethargy and ignorance of citizens in matters governmental and political have not only brought severe criticism of the democratic process but also have endangered democracy and added unnecessarily to the cost of government. But politics, like business, is too often considered an immoral or low-caste field beneath the dignity of many intellectuals, hence ignored. Our cultured intellectuals prefer not to stoop to being politicians. However, could not these cultured intellectuals write their poetry, paint their pictures, and compose their

drama around the political problems of society? Certainly most of the great poetry and drama we know has a political, economic, or sociological theme. To produce great works of this kind the author must know the techniques of writing. But perhaps of greater importance is a knowledge of how society operates and some appreciation of how it might be improved.

Our democracy needs more of our young, highly gifted and thoroughly honest men and women who are well-trained technically and culturally to be members of local, state, and national governmental agencies. We should not only provide such training in our colleges but encourage the gifted to consider this field as a vocation.

The study of government has been considered before the study of business, not because it is more important than business in a democracy, but because it is associated more specifically with democracy. The two fields of study cannot easily be classified one above the other. Each touches the life of every citizen in some rather direct fashion. The failure of business to function efficiently and in the public interest has in the past brought collapse to our banking facilities, curtailment of production, widespread unemployment, generally reduced standards of living, psychological instability, riots, and rebellion. In other countries it has given rise to Hitlers and Mussolinis. We are most fortunate that such breakdowns in our business life have not produced an American Hitler. The fact that they have not is largely accidental. If our business problems are not met in the future more effectively than in the past, our political democracy will probably fall.

Because business touches the life of every person so intimately and from so many angles it would seem that anyone without a considerable knowledge of how business operates and how it might operate more effectively could hardly be called thoroughly educated. Furthermore, in a democratic society which reposes great faith in the ability of citizens to work out and direct their own destinies, education in business must find a prominent place in our educational institutions. We must look to the more intelligent for leadership and our institutions of higher learning are the most logical training grounds for such leadership.

Educators in business, therefore, have a great opportunity as well as a great responsibility. They must light the way of business progress. They must preach a philosophy of business both to the future busi-

ness man and woman and to the lay citizen who can influence business policy through group pressure. In our democratic life the only basic business philosophy that is sound is that business institutions and business practices should be built on service to society. Business for the people is just as pertinent and vital as government for the people.

This philosophy is not new. It has been an important part of democratic philosophy since the days of the industrial revolution. Until recently, however, we have been lulled to sleep by the economic sooth sayers who have promised social and business welfare through the operation of perfect competition and automatic forces. Business education cannot be built upon the old theories. Neither can it be built upon past business practice or the philosophies of typical business men. Too many business men are too hidebound by tradition even to voice approval of operation whole-heartedly in the public interest.

But why are the old economic theories unsound and why are past and present business practices untenable in modern life? Our national economy has reached the age of maturity and has increased greatly in complexity. Our population is fast becoming stabilized through a declining birth rate and curtailment of immigration. Free land is no longer available for those who hope to escape from the encroachment of complex living. No longer is there a scarcity of capital. Instead there is increasing difficulty in finding profitable outlets for capital already accumulated. The hope for profits is giving ground to a hope for security. The corporate form of business organization has already greatly overshadowed the individual entrepreneur.

Under such circumstances a *laissez faire* economy with its emphasis on free enterprise and liquidity of productive factors cannot persist. With the passing of such tenets we have seen an increase of citizen interference with business processes. We can expect to see much more of such activity. Special interests must give way to group action. This is so because such economic complexity generates an increasing amount of interdependence among individuals and economic groups. We become more and more conscious that the actions of the manufacturer have a direct bearing on the welfare of the banker, wholesaler, retailer, laborer, and consumer. If this influence is detrimental to any large group or groups it will have repercussions on society that may even destroy our form of government. Thus, to preserve our economic

equilibrium and perhaps our individual freedoms, we must see to it that the social welfare is a dominant philosophy of business. We must have business operated for the people, of course with business receiving rewards worthy of the servant.

We can have business operated for the people only if (1) business leaders accept this philosophy and function with *enlightened* selfishness, (2) the people bring sufficient pressure through governmental controls to assure such results, (3) the people operate their own business as they do their government, or (4) a combination of these procedures is utilized. At present we cannot hope that the solution lies entirely with business leadership. We must, it seems to me, depend, for some time to come, upon the pressure of citizens to prevent business leaders from destroying their own institutions as well as our democratic institutions of government.

Already we have seen such pressure in operation on a limited scale. We already have weights and measures legislation, curbs on untruthful advertising, restrictions on price discrimination, wool labeling laws, controls over inflation, and the licensing of most business. Shall the future find pressure on such matters as the elimination of trade barriers, the spreading of purchasing power, and public utility status for milk distributors? If the future does not provide citizen pressure on these matters there will unquestionably be increased condemnation of many business practices.

This means, therefore, an increased responsibility on the part of all citizens and leaders. Since dependence must be placed on citizen pressure, is it not imperative that citizens be given training designed to help in meeting these responsibilities intelligently? It is particularly deplorable that such responsibilities have not been generally recognized and assumed by our men of scholarship and letters. We should all be interested in the comments of Archibald MacLeish¹ concerning the irresponsibles in our country. "I think," he says, "that intellectual responsibility has been divided in our time and by division destroyed. The men of intellectual duty, those who should have been responsible for action, have divided themselves into two castes, two cults—the scholars and the writers. Neither of these accepts responsibility for the common culture or for its defense. . . .

"A century ago the professions of the writer and the scholar were united in the single profession of the man of letters, and the man

¹ Archibald MacLeish, "The Irresponsibles." *The Nation*, 150:20, May 18, 1940.

of letters was responsible in everything that touched the mind. . . . He was a man of learning whose learning was employed not for its own sake in a kind of academic narcissism but for the sake of decent living in his time. [Today the scholar] digs his ivory cellar in the ruins of the past and lets the present sicken as it will. . . .

"The irresponsibility of the scholar is the irresponsibility of the scientist upon whose laboratory insulation he has patterned all his work. The scholar in letters has made himself as indifferent to values, as careless of significance, as bored with meanings as the chemist. He is a refugee from consequences, an exile from the responsibilities of moral choice. His words of praise are the laboratory words—objectivity, detachment, dispassion. His pride is to be scientific, neuter, skeptical, detached—superior to final judgment or absolute belief. . . .

"Nothing is more characteristic of the intellectuals of our generation than their failure to understand what it is that is happening to their world. . . . They continue to speak of the [present] crisis as though the imperialistic maneuvers and struggles for markets are no concern of theirs."

Both the intellectuals and the average citizens should know what is happening to their world and their nation. They must know if their democratic civilization is to be returned to them. Since much of what is happening to us—to our nation and our world—is of a business character, the student, even though not interested in business as a vocation should have sufficient training in practices and techniques in production, distribution, and auxiliary fields so that an appraisal might be made as to whether such practices are in the public interest. Such training would provide a more intelligent basis for voting on proposed changes and might stimulate leadership in sponsoring change. It would also provide important and vital background material of value to the poet, author, preacher, social worker, composer, teacher, and artist in making valued and lasting contributions to culture and progress.

Would it be going too far to require all college students to take courses in government and business subjects in order that they might be better able to assume their positions as able members of a democratic citizenry? Of course, many students do not like these subjects, but would it not be good mental discipline to force them to pass such courses? Does our failure to include these as required courses indicate that we are getting soft and that we are promoting softness among students?

The student who plans to enter business as a vocation should study the field more thoroughly than the citizen or layman. He will need to give some time to a study of past business history as well as present techniques and practices. But if he is to leave his university an educated man and one worthy of the degree bestowed upon him, he must not have studied current practices and techniques merely as blueprints to be followed by future business leaders (including himself.) He must have searched such practices with a progressive eye for improvement, never losing sight of the need for correlating present and future practices with basic philosophy.

This approach to business education might be made clearer by an example. Almost everyone feels free to criticize advertising and to make suggestions for change. These suggestions range all the way from rigid control to outright abolition of advertising. Because of this, men of business and the student of advertising too often feel compelled to support advertising without reservation. The progressive educator, it seems to me, would analyze advertising from the standpoint of its potentialities as an economical business tool and the ways in which it could be used in the public interest.

Such an analysis might well disclose that advertising could be used as a buyer's guide. It might well operate as an economical means of informing buyers of the existence of want-satisfying commodities, where such goods could be purchased, their price, and their desirable qualities. Of course to be a true guide there must be no false statements or erroneous impressions created. Sufficient information must be given in the advertisements to allow potential buyers to make adequate evaluations. Information should be given in such a manner that comparisons could be made with other articles designed to satisfy the same needs or desires. This would probably mean the establishment of quality standards to be administered by trade groups or the government. Such standards have already been established in some fields. More than 90% of all gas appliances sold in the United States have the Association's stamp of approval on them. Last year, three canners of food labeled all their food in terms of U. S. Government standards under the supervision of a government man. Many sellers of sheets, pillow cases, and other textile products place in their advertising the breaking strength, thread count, percentage of sizing, and other pertinent quality information. The Sears Roebuck catalog is accurate and informative and serves many people as a guide to their buying.

Advertising that adheres to these principles is probably not bad; on the contrary it is often good and in harmony with the public welfare. The problem is largely one of getting more advertisers operating on this basis and that is where education in advertising fits into the picture. An increase in such advertising will come about when business leaders recognize its fundamental soundness and the lay citizen understands its possibilities sufficiently to exert intelligent pressures. We must also curb those trained in literature and creative writing from carrying their flair for fiction into the advertising pages.

Thus, the student of business in the progressive university, studying under progressive teachers, will never be allowed to forget that business is fundamentally a servant of the consuming public. If he is to be a good servant he must have a thorough knowledge of the people whom he serves. He must therefore include in his training a study of sociology and psychology. He must know something of the interests and desires of all groups of people. In order that he may be able to keep his finger continuously on the pulse of human desires he must know how to survey such people regularly and accurately. He must therefore not only know mathematics but how to use it as well. He must know the cultured as well as the uncultured, the rich and the poor, the intelligent and the ignorant, the black and the white, in fact all who make up the great market for goods and services.

Education in business should also place much emphasis on straight thinking. If service is to be rendered most adequately, business problems must be met with a minimum of waste motion and inefficiency. Consider the problems of expanding airplane factories to meet the war crisis, or of changing plants from the manufacture of automobiles to tanks on short notice. Even more appalling are the problems of reduced employment, idle plant capacity, and diminishing consumer purchasing power that will present themselves after the war.

Some would advocate specialized courses in straight thinking. The business student should and does make use of courses in logic, but such techniques are then applied in business courses which deal with the critical analysis of actual past or current business problems and projected future problems. It is by practicing logic in those fields that hold our interest and which need straight thinking that we get our greatest development. While business does not ask to be classified as a science it certainly can utilize the scientific method in exploring solutions to the socio-business problem.

Nor should business education be considered easy or devoid of mental discipline. If a course in accounting or record keeping is difficult for a student he should not be allowed to pass it by because it is difficult. Very few students in Schools of Commerce try to evade such courses, probably because they see or have been made to believe that they are vital to a thorough training in production, or selling, or banking. This element of immediacy or closeness probably eases the pain for the many who fail such courses and are forced to repeat them, but this does not reduce their disciplinary value.

Education in business would ideally be a part of the program of every college student who wishes to be a well-rounded person and capable of assuming some leadership in the democratic process. It would be education for a purpose, a factor lacking in some fields of study unless we label study for its own sake as a purpose. The purpose of business education is to improve one's ability to make a living through service. An individual's education, however, should not end here. I believe with James Truslow Adams that, "there are obviously two educations: one should teach us how to make a living and the other how to live." No student is completely educated until he has attained both educations. I submit, however, that it might be rather difficult to live if one could not make a living.

Be that as it may, the business student, no more than any other student, should ignore the art of living. He should have enough literature in college to stimulate an interest in literature and the same is true of music and art appreciation. He certainly should not consider it necessary to cram all his reading of literature or his absorption of music and art into his college years. Such activity should be continued throughout life. It is interesting, though, how some look upon the student of business as uninterested in those fields that add to the joys of living. I hesitate to relate the following story, but it does illustrate what I have in mind. Within the past month I was called into the home of one of our venerable and cultured citizens. The lady of the house explained that she hoped that I might be influenced to encourage our business students to develop an increased and continuing interest in music. She was much encouraged, she said, although really very much surprised to learn recently from the School of Fine Arts that the best musicians in the glee club and orchestra were business students. She frankly could not understand such a phenomenon and neither could the Fine Arts people. She was even more surprised when she learned that these students were taking

music because they liked it, and that they did not need the credit. She just could not believe that those who placed major emphasis on the study of Business could actually enjoy music or could be cultured people. Slang expressions or an ungrammatical utterance made her wince.

I doubt whether such attitudes toward "culture" are conducive to the art of living. Certainly, included in those studies designed primarily to promote the art of living should be a goodly sprinkling of tolerance for the uneducated, the uncultured, and the over-cultured.

Thus, I lay the case for education in business before you. May I restate my thesis? In a democracy sovereignty rests with the people. Not only progress, but the very life of democracy depends upon the degree to which citizens exercise their sovereign rights intelligently. Both the political and business aspects of society touch the lives of all citizens of a democracy most intimately. Citizens must give more intelligent thinking to both these fields if social welfare is to be enhanced. To do this necessitates training in the affairs both of government and business. The responsibility for such training rests largely with our educational institutions. Since universities have the challenge of training the real leaders of the future we might logically conclude that that challenge cannot be met adequately until we give all such potential leaders a social philosophy of government and business. We must also give them certain training in basic techniques and processes that harmonize with such philosophies. Only by such a procedure can we hope to preserve our democratic freedoms. Democracy cannot live if its citizens are ignorant of or indifferent to matters affecting the public welfare.

May I close this paper with a reference from a recent *Phi Beta Kappa Key Reporter*? In that issue it is stated that, "In old Williamsburg the members of Phi Beta Kappa aimed at improving friendship among themselves. These young collegians took the keenest interest in matters of grave public import, some of which were soon to cause the separation of the colonies from the mother country. For many years now the Society has considered its chief reason for existence to be the stimulation and recognition of high scholarship in the liberal arts and sciences."

Personally, I believe this "chief reason for existence" is out of harmony with "the keenest interest in matters of grave public import." Certainly we must all agree that many of such matters today are busi-

ness matters and require high scholarship in their solution. But the early members of Phi Beta Kappa had more than a keen interest in public matters for, as *The Key Reporter* states, "these young collegians were frank in criticizing each other in the debates held during their regular meetings."

So, while some of the usefulness of Phi Beta Kappa may have disappeared, I am sure that the will to criticize each other has not disappeared. Let us hope, also, that the desire to improve friendship is still with us.

Student Guidance and Welfare Procedures in Member Colleges of the Mid-West Regional Unit of the National Catholic Education Association¹

CLEMENT HOLLAND

THE WAR with its emphasis on maximum and efficient use of man power has directed the nation's attention more than ever to the problems of student personnel in our colleges and universities. The establishment and development of effective student personnel programs in higher institutions of learning depend to some extent on the utilization of discoverable facts concerning the strength and weaknesses found in existing programs. This paper reports in an abbreviated and general form the findings of such a study of a group of colleges belonging to a specific geographical and administrative population.

The problem was to study the student personnel and student welfare programs of twenty-four Mid-western Catholic colleges in the light of the established aims of the colleges. Each college was a member of the Mid-West Regional Unit of the National Catholic Education Association. The participating colleges represented approximately seventy-five per cent of the liberal arts college membership of the association in the states of Ohio, Illinois, Michigan, Indiana, Iowa, Wisconsin, and Minnesota. The colleges varied in enrollment, residence of students, sex of students and complexity of organization and administration.

The procedure followed in the study consisted of the application of an extensive objective check list by personal visit to each campus, personal interviews with college officers and an analysis of documents. A brief summary of the findings are listed in the discussion following.

¹ A summary of an unpublished Ph.D. thesis, University of Minnesota Library, December, 1941.

ORGANIZATION

Four colleges had organized programs of student personnel in the sense that they had centralized direction, co-ordination of the various services, a written plan, and faculty understanding of the functioning program. The remaining institutions conducted various personnel services on a decentralized and non-co-ordinated basis.

INDUCTION OF STUDENTS

The induction of students was treated under pre-college guidance, admission, and orientation.

All of the institutions carried on pre-college guidance of some kind, with about one-third of the colleges having the work on an organized basis. The three chief administrative officers of a college had the responsibility of directing such guidance. Regular staff members, part-time workers, and field agents or contact men made up the staffs who contacted students. The tenure of these staff members, except in the case of the regular field agent, was short and irregular in character. Availability was an important determiner of assignment for student contact work. The professional training of the staff insofar as it could be determined did not evidence much training in guidance.

The pre-college guidance and recruiting procedures used varied in number and emphasis from college to college, with twelve practices reported as being fairly frequent. Circulars, form letters and direct correspondence were used extensively. The competitive event on the college campus was the least used method of contact with prospective high school matriculants. A small number of institutions conducted extensive student recruiting campaigns extending over large areas. Unfair competitive student recruiting practices were reported by about two-thirds of the institutions, alleged unethical usage of scholarship tuition offers being the most frequently reported practice. A few commendable practices were also reported.

Articulation between college and secondary schools was not extensive except where the same religious community operated both.

The registrar directs admission and usually requires that the student furnish a certain high school subject pattern, a credit transcript, and other qualifying factors.

In practically all of the colleges freshmen orientation consisted of a "freshman week" which averaged three days in length and some

subsequent formal and informal adjustment to the problem of going to college. A freshman advisory system was in operation in nearly all the colleges. Orientation classes meeting one hour a week for a semester and student handbooks were additional orientation techniques used by about three-fourths of the institutions.

Fewer than one-fourth of the colleges reported any research on the problem of student induction into college.

COUNSELING

The inquiry on counseling dealt with the provisions for educational, vocational and personal counseling of students beyond the freshman year. It did not include freshman counseling or religious or disciplinary counseling, which were treated separately.

Twenty colleges used a decentralized combined faculty-administrator advisory plan with upper and lower division counseling carried on separately. Four colleges used a more centralized type of counseling in the sense that in addition to faculty counselors there was a staff of from one to six of both administrative and non-administrative rank staff members assigned to practically full time counseling. In both organizational forms the college dean was the usual administrative head.

One-fourth of the colleges held regular staff meetings of counselors. Co-ordinating devices, such as central record bureaus and test information distribution services were used by about three-fourths of the institutions. Other co-ordinating devices were used much less extensively.

Staff members were selected on the basis of interest, availability, and knowledge of the institution rather than on the basis of professional training or experience in counseling. Institutional in-service training of the staff consisted of making available counseling literature, and attendance at professional meetings. Registration for professional courses, demonstration clinics, and visiting experts were used by about one-sixth of the institutions.

Procedures used in lower division general counseling involved the assignment of twenty to twenty-five students to a faculty adviser who interviewed each student at least once during the school year. In case of low marks or scholastic failure the adviser interviewed the failing student and gave him some diagnostic and remedial treatment, the amount of which depended on the training, motivation, and available time of the counselor. In the majority of the colleges the

evidence did not point toward the use of a systematic preventive, diagnostic, remedial follow-up program of counseling for the failing pupil. Counseling usually consisted of the inspirational or exhortatory talk.

Vocational counseling is given along with educational counseling. Colleges used varied procedures for the dissemination of vocational information to their students. The most common procedure was to bring a representative worker in some vocation to the campus for an occasional general talk. Such talks were usually not part of a regularly planned program. Additional techniques used consisted of opportunities for student personal consultation with visiting vocational specialists and providing various occupational information. Practically no college provided a well-rounded plan of vocational counseling.

STUDENT DISCIPLINE

Disciplinary policy was formulated and executed in most colleges by a dean of discipline. The academic dean assisted him in several colleges. In a few institutions a committee on discipline aided in the work. Rules and regulations were usually given to the students in written form in a student handbook. Residential colleges had more rules than day colleges. Closer regulation was found in women's colleges. In general, the dean of discipline and other members of his staff had had no special training for the work, and tenure was short. Two qualifying factors for appointment frequently used are firm character and ability to get along with college youth. The position did not appear to be a sought-after one.

The disciplinary procedures commonly used consisted of the establishment of a set of rules and penalties, and the observation of student conduct on the basis of expected conformity to institutional disciplinary policy. A minority of institutions provided for a student council or self-directed discipline, a system of appeal from initial penalization, written disciplinary records and positive preventive programs. The chief types of disciplinary offenses were violations of attendance and dormitory rules. The most commonly used penalties were warnings and restrictions of privileges.

STUDENT RELIGIOUS GUIDANCE

Ten institutions maintained organized departments of religious guidance. The remaining colleges carried on religious guidance in conjunction with the classes of religious instruction or under the

direction of a chaplain or Sodality moderator. Staff meetings and other co-ordinating methods are rarely used. Small colleges maintained that their size made possible co-ordination without the use of formal devices.

Staff preparation was the usual preparation for the religious life. Very few institutions reported long range plans for the selection and training of the religious guidance staff or for the instructors in religion. Eight colleges for women did not have full time resident chaplains, but had one or more priests situated at nearby parishes or colleges come to the campus daily.

The spiritual exercises offered in the colleges consisted of sixteen different services largely on an optional basis except for Sunday Mass and Annual Retreat. Inadequate chapel facilities, and the question of religious guidance for day students appeared to be major problems.

STUDENT HEALTH SERVICE

Four colleges maintained organized departments of student health. These organized departments were located in the larger institutions and were in two cases a part of the institution's Medical School. The remaining twenty institutions employed doctors and nurses to provide varying amounts of health service to the students. Where doctors and nurses were employed, frequently the director of the health service was a priest, sister, or layman. Physical education and institutional sanitation were not under the supervision of the health service in most of the schools. Three colleges reported staff meetings and the use of co-ordinating devices. Fewer than half of the colleges had written descriptions of their health service program.

Each institution employed one or more physicians and nurses. The usual practice was to employ a practicing physician from the city or town in which the college was located, on a part-time basis. The day schools' health service usually consisted of a physical examination only. Only two schools held membership in the American Student Health Association, and there was practically no evidence to indicate that selection itself or the post-selection activities of student health physicians or nurses were based on a recognition of the increasingly unique character of the present work in college student health.

All colleges provided for the charging of a health fee included in the tuition or as a separate fee. The health services provided to stu-

dents varied from free consultation to ailing students in all but one college to the provision for major operations at no cost in one institution. Seventeen schools required a medical examination at entrance, and seven had annual examinations. Five allowed the student to use his own doctor in lieu of the college physician. One provided no campus examining physician. The health examination and the forms used in the various colleges indicated that the examination varied from leniency to thoroughness.

About half the schools maintained campus infirmaries. Three institutions had recently constructed student health and physical education buildings. In the majority of colleges the physical examination of athletes tended to be more thorough than that of other students.

Environmental safety and sanitation control is not well organized or managed in these schools. The business manager usually directs such work, without any technical assistance. Research and records are not well developed.

STUDENT HOUSING AND BOARDING

Sixteen institutions maintained residential facilities, five had no housing quarters, and three had limited student residential rooms. About eleven per cent of the student body of all schools live off the campus, but not in their own homes. However, two institutions have respectively one-third and one-half of their students living off campus, but not in their own homes. The supervision of these off-campus groups presents many problems which the colleges have endeavored to meet through part-time directors of off-campus students, room inspection, approved rooming lists, and other regulations. The number of staff members available and their training and time available for this work were insufficient in most schools.

Six institutions reported the use of trained dieticians. Attention to the problem of dining hall environment and the use of the dining hall as an instrument for education in the acquirement of the ordinary social graces was evident in the programs of three or four of the colleges for women. Increasing enrollments have caused a housing problem for about one-half of the institutions. The problem is two-fold: funds should be raised for the necessary residence halls; if this cannot be done, the acceptance of a permanent off-campus non-residential student group will probably require more careful study and supervision than is now evident.

THE EXTRACURRICULUM, FINANCIAL AIDS, PLACEMENTS AND RECORDS

The above four phases of institutional student personnel programs were studied in the final schedule. The extracurriculum included such activities as athletics, dramatics, publications, musical organizations, clubs, forensics, student government, and social affairs. The Dean of Men or the Dean of Women exercised general direction over these activities in fifteen colleges. Authorization for the activity as well as indirect control through faculty moderators and frequent reports were the means used.

Athletic activities consisted of varsity and intramural types in the men's colleges and intramural in the colleges for women. The literary magazine was the most common publication. Each school maintained clubs of various kinds. The point system was used by ten institutions to control over-participation. The chief problem in these activities was reported as the over-participation of a few students and the under-participation of a large part of the undergraduate student body.

Scholarships, part-time positions, and NYA funds were the three main kinds of financial aids offered to students. Eligibility for scholarships usually depended on need, scholastic ability, and the geographical residence of the student. From five to twenty per cent of the student body of the institutions were awarded scholarships. The usual scholarship amounted to a year's tuition or from \$100 to \$200.

Placement services consisted of institutional attempts to find part-time work during the school year and employment at the time of graduation. Fifteen institutions made some effort to place students. Six operated central placement offices with one or more full time or part time staff members on duty.

Most of the schools endeavor to centralize the student records in the Registrar's office. Fifteen institutions have developed their own system of records. The number of different kinds of records used varied.

The *evaluation* of the personnel programs was made on the basis of the recommendations of authoritative students in the field, the criteria established by accrediting and advisory agencies as well as on the basis of such comparative studies as could be found. The evaluation led to the following *suggestions* which were offered as a basis for improved programs of student personnel in these colleges.

There should be a planned student induction program with less emphasis on recruiting and more on the selection, admission and adjustment of students who will profit by attendance at a specific college. There should be a preventive, diagnostic and remedial program of counseling with at least some technical assistance to faculty advisers to make this possible. In the discipline program there should be greater encouragement of student self discipline, and greater professionalization of the office of disciplinarian. The student religious guidance program of off-campus students and the problem of the differentiation of the class room instruction in religion from guidance need to be carefully examined. The greater use of housing and boarding facilities as an instrument of education should be developed in every institution. The health program in three-fourths of the institutions should be greatly improved. Finally, each institution needs carefully and continuously to conduct evaluation and self-study programs of its work in student personnel.

Editorial Comment

The 1943 Convention

THE question of whether the 1943 convention of the A.A.C.R. should be held has been a difficult one for the Executive Committee to answer. On the one hand, it was clearly evident that the multitudinous problems created by the war gave to every Registrar more than ordinary need for an opportunity to exchange information and ideas. On the other, it was equally evident that the exigencies of wartime transportation made any attempt to hold so large a meeting seem unwise, if not actually unpatriotic. Finally, after considerable correspondence among the members of the Executive Committee, and after the receipt of strong representations from the Office of Defense Transportation, it has been decided to cancel the meetings set for April, 1943.

President Robinson has suggested some tentative plans for making the July issue of the JOURNAL a convention number, notwithstanding the fact that there will be no convention to report. Both he and the editor will welcome suggestions from the membership as to topics that should be discussed and information that should be made available. So far as it is possible for a publication to do so, the JOURNAL would like to substitute for the convention this year.

Counsels of Panic

EVER SINCE Pearl Harbor, it has been the fashion among minor bureaucrats to berate the great American public for complacency. We do not know we are in the war. We have no conception of the magnitude of our task. We underestimate the power and the malevolence of our enemies. And so on. Apparently these people will not be satisfied until we all get panicky.

The truth is that there is very little actual complacency in America;

instead, there is an immense determination and a quiet confidence which only an idiot would mistake for apathy. When the President returned from his recent tour and announced what he had observed, most of the outcry about complacency died down. But the counsels of panic were not stilled; they merely turned their clamor upon the educational world. That is why in recent weeks we have heard so much about the necessity of dismantling our educational program for the duration. The colleges, if we are to listen to one faction, are either to board up their windows and doors or else are to be turned into officers' training camps, where trainees will get what they can of mathematics and science as they rush through on their way to the front.

If this were necessary, the colleges would not shrink from it. But so far the only evidence that it is necessary lies in the assertions of a group of military men, who cannot even claim to speak officially for the Army. Even if they could, there would still be a doubt, as President Gideonse has very pertinently pointed out, as to whether the Army is the right authority to be given power over the colleges. "Isn't it a part of a healthy American tradition," he inquires, "that civilian authority should remain in charge when matters are involved in which Army officers or the War Department cannot possibly have training and experience? . . . If we begin by drafting legislation that turns effective control of education over to the Army, we may be sacrificing the very factors that differentiate a free and a totalitarian society."

No one questions the need of the armed forces for technical experts in mathematics and all the sciences. No one denies that the colleges are the proper place for their training, and certainly no college has shown any reluctance to undertake the task. But to say that all other academic activities must be stamped out until victory is to attempt to destroy the continuity of the cultural tradition which is one of the things we are fighting to preserve. Men in their teens and early twenties—even though their progress toward their careers is to be interrupted by a period of military service—need to know other things than navigation and elementary physics. Winning the war is very properly the prime consideration of the Army, and of all the rest of us, as well. But our situation is not so desperate that we need to sacrifice to the war effort all the values which give our participation a meaning. The Army cannot be expected to take much thought for the long view problems to follow the war, but if American

democracy is to continue as an effective system, somebody must do so. The challenge is very clear.

Changing Educational Values

IN TIMES such as these when the prosecution of a total war is the foremost consideration in every sphere of activity, the normal course of living must be set aside to meet the demands of war. Sacrifices are called for on every hand, and there are no exceptions for higher education. College and university administrators have accepted the responsibility which the emergency places upon them and are responding whole heartedly by modifying their educational programs in every way possible to contribute more effectively to the war effort. Their chief concern is not "education as usual" but the winning of the war.

The objectives of education for total war are far different from those to which higher education had been directing its efforts before the war. Today, men and women must be prepared as rapidly and effectively as possible for active participation in a world conflict. As never before, emphasis is being placed on the building of strength and physical fitness, and there is need for early specialization along technical and professional lines. Large numbers of men and women must be made ready at top speed. The research worker as well as the teacher must direct his thoughts to the problems of war.

Without doubt, some of the changes that are taking place in American higher education because of the war will prove highly beneficial. No one will challenge the greater interest that is being shown in the physical well-being of students. Programs designed to insure physical fitness will outlive the emergency. In addition, there will be a definite gain by the elimination and modification of much in higher education that has survived by the mere weight of tradition.

However, in spite of the stress and pressure of meeting immediate needs arising from the war, we must make sure that, when the emergency is over, there will be preserved those fundamental objectives of American higher education, well-trained minds and broad cultural backgrounds of knowledge. Training cannot be limited to narrow specialized fields without great loss to the individual and society. It will indeed be unfortunate if colleges and universities are permitted to become merely technological institutions. While technology has an

important place, much more is needed to provide a full education according to American standards. The humanities and the social sciences have a vital contribution to make, and it will prove an irreparable loss if programs of higher education disregard, even for a period of only a few years, these fields which furnish a liberal education and an understanding of moral and political problems. Public interest demands that citizens in a democracy shall be trained for democratic living and qualified to assume places of leadership in local, in national, and often in world affairs. As never before, when the war is over, there will be need for broad understanding and clear thinking to solve the difficult problems of the post-war reconstruction period if a lasting peace is to be secured.

But in a twentieth century world, with barriers broken down between nations and continents, to safeguard our democratic way of life, much more will be necessary than the preservation in this country of the high ideals of American education. We shall have to strike at the forces which make dictatorships possible, those educational systems which have been designed to insure the exploitation of the masses.

Nazi Germany has been eminently successful in training youth for war. It has been able to degrade the masses so that they are to a considerable degree pawns in a great world conflict. The schools of Nazism openly indoctrinate and give much narrowly specialized training. A liberal education is a thing of the past in Germany. Hitler has said that "Scientific exposition is for the intelligentsia. The modern weapon of propaganda is for the masses." But even for that very small group which is permitted to attend the universities in order to be trained for political and scientific leadership, the emphasis is not on intellectual education. The general aims are training for service to the national State and glorification of the national culture.

Nowhere is the conflict between democracy and dictatorship more clearly demonstrated than in the educational programs formulated by these two philosophies of government. The post-war problem of education and re-education in totalitarian countries, under our supervision, if not our direction, will be a challenge to the best thought and effort of leaders in education. It will be futile to win the war unless the peace that follows guarantees the preservation of those democratic ideals of American life for which the war is being fought.

A.H.P.

What Next?

AS THIS copy of the JOURNAL goes to press many registrars are wondering what the next move will be. Doubtless some are breathing easier now that the reserve enlistment program has been taken out of the hands of the colleges. Others are wondering what will become of our enrollment next semester and next year.

Already sweeping changes have taken place in higher education since December 7, 1941, and it is likely that the coming year will show even greater changes in the field. That the colleges and universities of our land have been able to adjust to a war program is to their eternal credit. We cannot help but wonder whether governmental agencies and leaders will be as farsighted and wise in handling the manpower problem as the leaders of higher education have proven themselves. To be sure there have been mistakes but what progress has ever been made without mistakes?

The American college will continue to meet the challenge of our day and will in all probability make an increasing contribution to the war effort. To survive and increase in influence and prestige it will, however, be necessary to continue to train young people to meet the problems of tomorrow as well as those of today. Higher education might well adapt the slogan of present day industry "The difficult is done immediately, the impossible takes just a little longer." American Higher Education is equal to the task!

E.C.D.

A Two-Fold Challenge

IT IS NOW time for educational institutions to begin serious planning for the post-war period. Such action would not imply a prediction as to when the war will end. A problem exists whether hostilities cease two years or five years hence. To be ready to meet the situation is a challenge to educational statesmanship.

Complete and satisfactory adjustment to the present emergency has not yet been fully accomplished. Educational administrators are keenly alert to this shortcoming. Nevertheless, with the American Council on Education serving as a clearing house, most colleges and universities have gone far in integrating their programs with other forces in the war effort. They stand ready to go all the way just as soon as the appropriate government agency makes known just what is wanted. In the meantime, the slack moments, few though they are, should be utilized in planning for a changed future.

Opportunities for service which higher education will inherit will be so voluminous as to stagger any institution not adequately prepared to cope with their intriguing possibilities. The men who return from the service, many to be rehabilitated, the normal college generation of the era, and society in general, will look to higher education to serve as a stabilizing influence during a transitional period, training for livelihoods and for citizenship guidance. Compared with current war time, the post-war period will be more complex and harbor more confusion as to real issues. Now the defeat of the enemy is the recognized objective. The strategy by which this is to be done most of us are willing to leave to the military experts. Likewise, common recognition may be extended the primary objectives of the peace, such as making possible a free, harmonious and peaceful society, and making forever impossible another world struggle such as we are now experiencing. However, there will unquestionably be much disagreement as to how these approaches to Utopia are to be brought about. It is in this direction that education must make its contribution. This will not be done by providing directly the ultimate solution. Rather it will be the function of education, while preparing young men and women for the various pursuits of life, to inspire them with the spirit of altruism which will enrich their capacity to cope with realities.

Recently a college president said, "The primary function of education is to relate people to their own environment. If education does not lead a person to meet with interest and intelligence the life about him, what function has it? Education, as I see it, concerns itself with the problems and needs of the people where they live." There is nothing new in such a philosophy of education. It is the brand commonly accepted. To adapt that philosophy adequately however, to an environment quite changed from that in which it has been functioning, is another matter, and that is the challenge educational institutions must meet.

Speaking before the Academy of Political Science recently, General George C. Marshall, as reported by *Time*, uttered a statement which might well be accepted as definitive of the future education must serve:

"I think we will have to compress theories into realities. We will have to bear in mind the inevitable human reactions of the post-war aversion to military matters, and of the taxpayers' pressure to reduce military appropriations. We will have to take the nations of the

world as they are, the prejudices and passions of the people as they exist, and with those considerations, develop a method so that we can have a free America in a peaceful world."

E. B. L.

Editorial Board

WITH THIS issue, a new editor of the JOURNAL makes his bow. Mr. Chamberlain, who has so ably served for the past two years, has become Dean of the University of Kentucky, and while he will continue to serve also as Registrar, he has found it impossible to carry on the duties of the editor. To him go the congratulations and good wishes of the entire Association as he embarks on his new responsibilities. To him, also, go the thanks of the Association for the fine work he has done in keeping the JOURNAL up to the standard set for it by his capable predecessors.

Mr. Chamberlain left the editor's files so perfectly organized that the preparation of the current issue was largely a matter of compiling the material he had prepared and assembled. It will not be so in future; henceforth the new editor is on his own. He is emboldened to undertake the task only by his confidence in the good-will and the ability of the Association at large. The membership of the A.A.C.R. is amply endowed with the brains, the devotion, and the professional zeal required to keep the JOURNAL flourishing. But the task cannot be accomplished by the Board of Editors alone; they must have the co-operation of all of their colleagues.

Mr. Chamberlain will continue as an Associate Editor. Miss Deters becomes Book Review Editor. In the next issue we hope to announce the appointment of a new Associate Editor whose primary responsibility will be the conduct of the section called "The Colleges and the War Effort", which should be increasingly important as time goes on.

No changes in policy or make-up are contemplated. Your comments, your suggestions, and your contributions will be very welcome.

Book Reviews

College and Life, Bennett, M. E., New York and London: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1941.

This is a book of unusual merit. There are no mock pearls of wisdom. The author has a profound realization of the greatness of opportunities a college student has. On page 335 there is a definition of an *adult*, and the obvious purpose of the book is to lead the student to a knowledge of himself as a happy and harmoniously functioning adult citizen. The author gives practical and concrete suggestions for achieving mental health, and for aiding the student in the choice of a vocation for which he is best suited.

There are no hard and fast rules of conduct, nor is advice attempted. The author stimulates thinking by the individual, and a freshman could not read the book without thinking earnestly and seriously about the place he would like to fill in the world and how he might attain it. This book can gain for him an insight into his potentialities; it can discover for him whatever limiting factors there may be in his personality and environment. Exercises, sometimes rather long exercises (page 262), give the student practice to discover, analyze, and solve individual problems. The three hundred and thirty-two selected references appended attest the author's dependable experience and critical perception.

"College and Life" is honestly and interestingly written. Emphasis is put upon right things, upon the "valuables" of life: emotional balance and maturity, mental honesty, loyalty, fair play, co-operativeness, an appreciation of beauty, and the building of a useful and satisfying life. The chapter on "Conditions for Effective Study" is rather elementary; whereas, "Making a Personal Inventory" and "Problems of Self Appraisal" are difficult. "Effective Remembering" and "The Nature of Study and Learning" overlap the instruction usually given in General Psychology courses.

Those chapters dealing with effective silent reading, the taking of notes, and the use of the library are especially good, complete, and usable. I like the idea of the simple filing system for students' notes (page 197). Instructions for term papers are forever being dinned into the student's ears, but he would like these as given here (page 240) in print for reference. It is refreshing to hear a good word said for the essay examination (page 233), and that it is possible to make correct answers to some questions in objective tests without knowing anything about them (page 234).

I recommend this book even though it might be difficult for the usual college beginner. It is readable; this is more than can be said for many

such books. The author goes thoroughly, even to the point of wordiness, into the problems covered, and every significant problem which faces the college freshman is covered. If the book were used for the usual run of freshmen, there should be a not-too-exacting Professor!

RALPH A. HILL
University of Louisville

Public Relations for Higher Education, Stewart Harrell, Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1942, pp. x + 290.

The usual charge of "too theoretical" or the equally damning accusation of "too technical" cannot be leveled at Stewart Harral's "Public Relations for Higher Education," which is a book every registrar might profitably read even if he has no direct part in his college's publicity program.

For Harral's enlightening and entertaining book is a blend of theory and practice. Harral teaches the theory of journalism on the Oklahoma campus, but he gained his actual experience on daily newspapers, so his book, which primarily concerns the college's public relations through the medium of the press, seems to touch on all of the problems which confront a college publicity man at some time in his experience.

His chapter titles have the same punch and attractiveness that newspaper headlines possess and that arrest the eyes of newspaper readers. Some of these catchy titles are "Science in Cap and Gown," "Statistics Can Have Drama," "Say It with Pictures," "The People's University," "Prexy Is a Superman" and "Nothing But the Truth."

The press is not the only medium covered: Harral also deals with radio, exhibits, public events, forums, extension classes, and a host of other items which rightfully can be placed in the category of public relations.

Harral has gone through the mill. Like all college publicity men, he has felt and still feels the tug of the academic viewpoint on one hand and the demand on the part of the public for an interpretation of the campus which it can understand—that demand being best exemplified by the daily and weekly press. And the publicity man who can "walk with kings, nor lose the common touch" is doing the best job for both the college and the public.

The part that registrars play in the public relations programs of 72 institutions studied by Harral may be of interest. They may console themselves with the fact that they are so busy with their own duties and problems that few college presidents have inflicted upon them the equally onerous duties of public relations.

In none of the 72 cases does a registrar have the job of running the news bureau or of handling radio programs. But there are four who have been placed in charge of the institution's educational movies and slides, seven who get out the viewbooks and bulletins, two who handle public events, six who are in charge of full-time field representatives, and a number who have minor public relations assignments.

While they have relatively few tie-ups with the publicity offices, registrars will find much of interest in "Public Relations for Higher Education."

GILSON WRIGHT, *News Bureau, Miami University*

The Colleges and the War Effort

Under date of October 23, the American Council on Education issued what may well prove one of the most significant of its highly important series on "Higher Education and National Defense". This is Bulletin 36 of the series, which should have a place in the files of every Registrar.

At the close of the last war there was a good deal of loose practise in connection with the granting of college credit for military service. Misguided sentiment played a part, as did also the element of competition between colleges, so that in many instances large amounts of credit were awarded for merely having worn the uniform. Bulletin 36 is at least a partial blueprint for a more rational procedure in granting credit for service in the present war. To quote from the Bulletin:

It would seem desirable that before committing themselves to the credit system which was generally adopted after the First World War, every institution should give careful consideration to the existence of two important factors in the present situation which did not exist in 1917 and 1918.

The first of these factors is the possibility of a far more discriminating evaluation of the educational benefits of military service than was possible at the close of the First World War. During the past twenty years experimentation with test materials and procedures, with records of educational activity, and with less formal means of educational appraisal, have made it possible for educational gains to be assessed with a considerable degree of exactness.

The second factor is the existence within the Army and Navy of an educational program which far exceeds in scope and intensity any program in operation during World War I. Not merely through the basic military training provided for all military personnel, but through specialized technical schools, Officer Candidate Schools, and an extensive off-duty educational program to which nearly 80 colleges and universities are directly contributing, the Army and Navy are making it possible for men in service to add in thoroughly tangible ways to their educational equipment.

The Army Institute grew out of a recommendation by the Subcommittee on Education of the Joint Army-Navy Committee on Welfare and Recreation. It has headquarters at Madison, Wisconsin, and at the time of publication of Bulletin 36 was offering 64 correspond-

ence courses to all enlisted men and women who have been in the Army four months or more and to both officers and enlisted men and women in the Navy and the Coast Guard. Courses offered directly by the Institute may be elected at a cost of \$2.00 each. The lessons are graded, on a contract basis, by the extension faculty of the University of Wisconsin. In addition, 77 participating colleges are offering a total of nearly 700 courses. For these the Army or Navy pays half the cost of textbooks and tuition, up to a total of \$20.00 a course for each man. It is anticipated that 100,000 students will be enrolled by the close of the current fiscal year. An advisory committee, composed of men of established reputation in higher education, has been set up to aid in the development of the best possible instructional material and to develop reliable tests and test procedures for the evaluation of learning experience.

After the war, returning students will be able to supply complete transcripts showing military service schools attended, Army Institute courses completed, and scores of appraisal tests covering educational experiences obtained. To consider the whole problem of translating this information into college credit, the American Council on Education set up a special committee under the chairmanship of Dr. Wilford M. Aiken. In April this committee made the following recommendation to the Subcommittee on Education, previously referred to:

That success in the Army correspondence courses be appraised in terms of skills, attitudes, and knowledge achieved by the students; that the Army Institute provide opportunity for soldiers, not registered in courses, but who have had comparable training experience, to take the appraisal tests and to receive proficiency ratings if they achieve a satisfactory standing in such tests; and that carefully constructed appraisal tests be used to determine the educational significance of skills acquired through varied types of war experience.

This recommendation was approved by the Subcommittee and by the Army, which will bear the cost of developing the necessary tests. The University of Chicago has been designated as the contracting agent with the Army, and Dr. Ralph M. Tyler, University Examiner, has been appointed Director of the Staff for the Development of Testing Materials. Three types of tests are in course of preparation:

Qualifying examinations to determine the ability of the individual to take the course he has selected; achievement tests to cover the courses offered in the army program; and examinations to de-

termine the educational competence of the individual in terms of high school or college credit. The examinations are largely of an objective type and are carefully appraised by experimental procedures in terms of their validity and reliability. These examinations are available to all enlisted personnel in the Army and to both officer and enlisted personnel in the Navy and the Coast Guard who wish to avail themselves of this service regardless of whether or not the individual has taken a course in the Institute and regardless of the individual's past educational experience.

The Institute will not seek to recommend the amount of high school or college credit that should be granted. Rather it will provide to schools and colleges the individual's score on the examinations, such score described objectively in terms of levels of competence; the Institute will also provide to schools and colleges or educational accrediting agencies a copy of such examinations so that they may determine, if they choose, by administering the test to their students, the equivalent educational level in their own institution of the competence score submitted by the Institute for the individual applying for credit. A topical outline of the Institute courses and the areas covered by the examinations will be provided to the institution upon request to the Army Institute.

Through this procedure the chaotic situation following the last war can be avoided; blanket credit for military service and even for specific military specialist courses can be avoided and a sound basis be provided for the readjustment of the individual into school and college to continue his education.

In May, the American Council on Education called together representatives of the regional associations and of the special committees.

Following a full day's discussion of the granting of credit for educational experience in the armed forces, the work of the Army Institute and the instructional and testing program operating through the Advisory Committee, the following resolutions were unanimously adopted:

Whereas, the educational program conducted by and through the Army Institute meets specific needs of men in the armed forces; and

Whereas, the program is basically sound as an educational experience and is related to the levels of achievement of the individual; and

Whereas, the procedure in the formulation and administration of both instructional and testing materials is in keeping with sound educational practice;

Therefore, it is recommended that:

1. Schools and colleges recognize in anticipation of the soldiers'

readmission to school or college for appropriate credit and proper placement of the student the appraisal of the level of competence of the individual based on Army Institute examinations of the individual's educational experience acquired while within the armed forces either through Institute courses or in such training as officer candidate schools, specialist training in aerodynamics, or the orientation program;

2. Schools and colleges recognize for appropriate credit and proper placement of the individual student, the record of correspondence courses completed through the Institute and given by participating schools and colleges;

3. Schools and colleges recognize for appropriate credit and proper placement of the individual student, courses completed in foreign universities and schools either on the basis of the usual channels of transfer of credit or on the basis of the level of competence as appraised by Institute examinations of the level of competence;

4. Copies of this memorandum and these recommendations be submitted to the regional associations for reference to their member organizations and institutions for appropriate action;

5. Copies be sent also to state departments of education for such modification of existing laws and regulations as will facilitate the carrying out of the recommendations by schools and colleges within the state jurisdiction.

Finally, the Committee on Accrediting Procedures of the American Council on Education, meeting in October with representatives of the Army and Navy educational branches, adopted the following recommendations:

1. That credit not to exceed one-half semester be granted upon presentation of evidence of the completion of the basic training course ordinarily included in the first 13 weeks' service in the armed forces; such credit to be assigned to physical education and hygiene, military training, or electives.

2. That a student's classification in college or university be based upon demonstrated intellectual maturity and achievement as evaluated by examinations covering his educational experiences and instruction in the armed forces. It is expected that each institution will provide its own criteria for the determination of such advanced standing credit. The armed forces have indicated their readiness and willingness to develop appropriate examinations so as to provide the institutions with evidence as to the educational accomplishments of men and women who continue their educational careers upon completion of service.

3. That the extent to which a student is judged to have completed

requirements in his major field or field of concentration be determined by achievement examinations in that field. Here again the armed forces stand ready to develop appropriate examinations for the evaluation of educational accomplishments of the men and women who return to their institutions.

It is important that all university officers concerned with accreditation be informed of the Army Institute and the plan outlined in Bulletin 36. The JOURNAL will endeavor to keep you informed of developments as they appear.

* * *

Occupational Bulletin No. 23, issued on September 30 by the national headquarters of the Selective Service System, lists as "Critical Occupations":

- (a) Presidents, Deans, and Registrars in junior colleges, colleges, universities, and professional schools; and
- (b) professors and instructors engaged in full-time instruction and research in one or more of the following subjects:

Agricultural Sciences	Mathematics
Architecture, Naval	Medicine and Surgery
Astronomy	Metallurgy
Bacteriology	Meteorology
Biology	Navigation, Aerial and Marine
Chemistry	Oceanography
Dentistry	Pharmacy
Engineering Science	Physics
Geology	Physiology
Industrial Management	Veterinary Sciences

* * *

When he affixed his signature to the bill which lowered the draft age from 20 to 18, President Roosevelt issued this statement:

I am causing a study to be made by a committee of educators, under the auspices of the War and Navy departments, to enable the young men whose education has been interrupted to resume their schooling and afford equal opportunity for the training and education of other young men of ability after their service in the armed forces has come to an end.

The membership of this committee of educators has recently been announced as Brigadier General Frederic H. Osborn, Dean Y. B. Smith, Columbia Law School, Pres. Dexter M. Keezer, Reed College, now on duty with the O.P.A. and Pres. R. C. Harris, Tulane.

Reported to Us

Mrs. Grace M. MacGaw, Registrar, Cornell College, represented the American Association of Collegiate Registrars at the inauguration of Dr. Anderson as President of Coe College on November 12.

Miss Margaret C. Disert, formerly Registrar and then Dean at Wilson College, has been granted leave of absence for service as an officer with the WAVES. Miss Disert will have charge of organizing procedures for the selection of officers and enlisted personnel in the fourth naval district, comprising Pennsylvania, Delaware, and Southern New Jersey.

The Reverend Paul McCann has been appointed Registrar of the College of St. Thomas, St. Paul, Minnesota. He succeeds the Reverend Arnold E. Luger who has been appointed Pastor of St. Martin's Church, Rogers, Minnesota.

Trinity College, Washington, D.C., has been admitted to membership in the College Entrance Examination Board.

The death of Dr. Clarence F. Ross, Dean Emeritus and former Registrar of Allegheny College, occurred on October 18. Dr. Ross had served on the faculty of Allegheny since 1892 as Professor of Latin, and had held nearly every administrative position on the staff. He was Registrar from 1893 to 1895, again in 1907-08, and from 1918 until his retirement in 1940. During the latter period he joined to his duties as Registrar those, successively, of Dean of Men, Acting President, Vice-President, and Dean of the College. He was a regular attendant at A.A.C.R. conventions.

The American Association of Collegiate Registrars was represented by Miss Forence L. Kreiter, Registrar, Hillsdale College, at the inauguration of the new President of Hillsdale College, Dr. Harvey L. Turner, on Friday, October 30.

Miss Ellis M. Sowell, Registrar, Stephen F. Austin State Teachers College, Nacogdoches, Texas, represented the American Association of Collegiate Registrars in the inauguration ceremonies of Dr. Boynton as President of that institution, November 7.

George O. Foster, for forty-four years Registrar of the University of Kansas, died in Lawrence on October 3. Mr. Foster became Registrar

Emeritus last June after a service which had extended since 1891, when he was first employed as a clerk in the Chancellor's office. He became Registrar in 1898, and received his A.B. degree from the University of Kansas in 1901. He was active in church, community, and Masonic affairs.

The College of St. Francis, Joliet, Illinois, has published a booklet entitled "Our Graduates: the Evaluation of the Objectives of the College of St. Francis by a Study of its Graduates."

Miss Pearl Alma Neas represented the American Association of Collegiate Registrars at the inauguration of John Nelson Russell Score as President of Southwestern University, Georgetown, Texas, on Tuesday, October 6, 1942. Miss Neas is Registrar at Southwestern University.

Professor Laurence Lee, Registrar of the New York State College of Forestry at Syracuse University, died on October 22. H. C. Belyea is Acting Registrar.

The Northeast Missouri State Teachers College at Kirksville celebrated its seventy-fifth anniversary on October 30.

Sister Mary Paul is now Registrar at Nazareth College, Louisville, Kentucky.

By formal action of the Board of Education of Kansas City, Missouri, last spring, the Teachers College of Kansas City and the Kansas City Junior College have been combined into one institution, known as the Junior and Teachers College of Kansas City.

Patrick J. Casey is now Registrar of St. Peter's College, Jersey City, New Jersey. Margaret M. O'Neill is Associate Registrar.

Jacob I. Hartstein, Registrar of Yeshiva College, was married in August to Miss Florence Waldman of New York City.

A new U.S. Post Office has been established at St. Mary College, Leavenworth, Kansas. It was officially opened as Xavier, Kansas, on November 1.

Marshal R. Beard, Associate Professor of History at Iowa State Teachers College, became Registrar on December 1.

Dr. Bryant Drake was inaugurated President of Doane College, Crete, Nebraska, on November 1.

Dora B. Sherburne, Registrar of Simmons College, Boston, resigned November 30. Mrs. Margaret K. Gonyea is her successor.

Dr. George Dotson, formerly Registrar of San Diego College, has become President of Long Beach Junior College. The new Registrar at San Diego is Henry C. Pfeiffer, formerly of the department of psychology at that institution.

C. C. Barnes, formerly Registrar of Central Michigan College of Education at Mount Pleasant, has become Dean of Administration. David M. Trout, Dean of Students, has charge of both the Division of Student Personnel and the Registrar's office.

The University of Florida reports that J. V. McQuitty, University Examiner, has been commissioned a First Lieutenant in the Army Air Force; H. W. Chandler, Registrar 1927-39 and Dean of the University since 1939 is a Lieutenant stationed at the Naval Air Base in Jacksonville; L. F. Blalock, Director of Admissions, has been commissioned a Lieutenant in the U.S.N.R.; Richard Whitehead, Recorder, is a Second Lieutenant in the Army Air Force; Thomas D. Ryan, Chief Clerk, is a Second Lieutenant in the Army and is now serving with the Armored Force.

JULIUS F. PRUFER, Secretary of the Virginia Association of Registrars has re-entered the Navy as a Lieutenant and is at present stationed in Washington, D.C.

Regional Meetings

THE CHICAGO CONFERENCE OF COLLEGE REGISTRARS held its quarterly meeting at Central Y.M.C.A. College of Chicago on November 4, at which time an interesting report of the recently completed study of the Progressive Education Association was presented. Current war problems were also discussed. Because the state meeting had been postponed many registrars from outside of the Chicago area were present at this meeting as special guests of the Chicago group.

INDIANA REGISTRARS met for their annual meeting at Butler University on November 5. President Harry E. Elder reports an excellent attendance and a profitable discussion of problems growing out of the war situation. The next annual meeting is to be held at DePauw University.

THE MICHIGAN COLLEGE ASSOCIATION met in Lansing on November 9. An excellent program was presented and we feel fortunate in being able

to present to our readers the outstanding paper of the meeting by President John L. Seaton of Albion College.

THE MIDDLE STATES ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS held its twelfth annual meeting in New York on November 27 and 28. The meetings were held at the Hotel New Yorker. "The Effect of the War on Student Life and Work" was discussed by Miss Martha E. Manahan of Western Maryland College and Mr. Robert H. Morrison, New Jersey State Department of Education. "The Effect of War on Office Practice" was discussed by Mr. J. M. Daniels of Carnegie Institute of Technology, and "The Effect of the War on Admissions" by Mr. Fred E. Nessel of George Washington University. The Army Institute was discussed by Mr. F. Taylor Jones of Drew University. One session was devoted to the theme "Women and the War" directed by Dean Margaret T. Corwin of New Jersey College for Women and Miss Eloise Davison, Director of New York *Herald Tribune* Home Institute.

THE NEBRASKA BRANCH OF THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS met at Dana College on November 14. A profitable meeting was reported.

THE NORTH CAROLINA ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS held its nineteenth annual meeting at the O. Henry Hotel of Greensboro on November 4. A stimulating address was given by Miss Louise Hall of the Fine Arts Department of Duke University on "Courses in Technical Drawing and Cartography." "Post-War Problems" were discussed by Mr. W. L. Mayer of North Carolina State College.

THE PACIFIC COAST ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS convened in California November 8, 9, and 10 with San Jose State College, Santa Clara University, and Stanford University as joint hosts. The Convention theme was "The Impact of the War on Colleges and Universities and the Contribution to the War Effort." The program was developed around eight symposia, some of which produced some lively discussions. The attendance included 83 delegates and guests representing 59 different institutions and agencies. The attendance personnel included 59 registrars and assistants and 11 presidents and deans. The outstanding feature of the meeting at Stanford was an address by Chancellor Ray Lyman Wilbur.

MEETINGS POSTPONED. The following associations postponed their fall meetings because of transportation difficulties: Illinois, North Central, Oklahoma, and Texas.

DIRECTORY OF REGIONAL ASSOCIATIONS

(Changes should be reported promptly to the Regional Associations Editor)

ALABAMA COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS ASSOCIATION

President, Louis C. Guenther, Howard College, Birmingham
Secretary-Treasurer, Eva Wilson, University of Alabama, University

ARKANSAS ASSOCIATION OF REGISTRARS

President, G. Y. Short, Arkansas State Teachers College, Conway
Secretary, Mrs. Clarine Longstreth, Little Rock Junior College, Little Rock

CHICAGO CONFERENCE OF COLLEGE REGISTRARS

President, Donald H. Steward, Central Y.M.C.A. College, Chicago

Secretary-Treasurer, Velma Davis, University of Illinois, Medical School, Chicago

COLORADO-WYOMING ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGE REGISTRARS

President, Morris F. Griffith, Mesa Junior College, Grand Junction, Colorado
Secretary-Treasurer, Dorothy Gelhaus, Adams State Teachers College, Alamosa,
Colorado

ILLINOIS ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGiate REGISTRARS

President, Asa Carter, Bradley Polytechnic Institute, Peoria

Secretary-Treasurer, Blanche C. Thomas, Eastern Illinois State Teachers College,
Charleston

INDIANA ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGiate REGISTRARS

President, Veneta J. Kunter, DePauw University, Greencastle

Secretary-Treasurer, Stanley M. Norris, Arthur Jordan Conservatory of Music,
Butler University, Indianapolis

KANSAS ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGiate REGISTRARS

President, Stanlee V. Dalton, Fort Hays Kansas State College, Hays

Secretary, Sister Ann Elizabeth, The Saint Mary College, Xavier

KENTUCKY ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGE REGISTRARS

President, Howard S. Higdon, Campbellsville College, Campbellsville

Secretary-Treasurer, Jessie Wilson, University of Kentucky, Lexington

LOUISIANA ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGiate REGISTRARS

President, Carmel V. Discon, Loyola University, New Orleans

MICHIGAN ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGiate REGISTRARS

President, Robert L. Williams, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor

Secretary, R. S. Linton, Michigan State College, East Lansing

MIDDLE STATES ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGiate REGISTRARS

President, William R. Howell, Washington College, Chestertown, Maryland

Secretary-Treasurer, J. M. Daniels, Carnegie Inst. of Technology, Pittsburgh,
Pennsylvania

MISSISSIPPI ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGE REGISTRARS

President, Mary Pulley, Mississippi Southern College, Hattiesburg

Secretary, Annie McBride, Belhaven College, Jackson

MISSOURI ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGiate REGISTRARS

President, L. A. Eubank, Northeast Missouri State Teachers College, Kirksville

Secretary, Orpha Stockard, Cottey College, Nevada

NEBRASKA BRANCH AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGiate REGIS- TRS

President, G. W. Rosenlof, University of Nebraska, Lincoln

Secretary, Zazel Sloniger, Nebraska Wesleyan University, Lincoln

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Notices must be accompanied by a remittance in full in favor of *The American Association of Collegiate Registrars* and should be sent to the Editor in care of the *Office of the Registrar, Miami University*.

Notices will be inserted in the order of their receipt.

Rates: For four insertions, limited to not more than fifty words, including the address, two dollars. Additional insertions at the regular rate. Extra space will be charged at the rate of five cents a word.

In printing these advertisements the Association assumes no obligation as to qualifications of prospective employees or of responsibility of employers.

In making this page available to those seeking personnel and to those seeking employment, the Association expects that at least some reply will be made to all those answering announcements.

POSITION WANTED:—Woman, 44. Registrar, Director of Admissions, or Assistant Dean. Prefer teachers college. Preparation includes one year beyond M.A. Major in mathematics. Minor in college administration. Teaching experience at all levels. Sixteen years as Registrar and college teacher of mathematics. Reply MV, Care Editor, Registrar's Office, Miami University, Oxford, Ohio. (4)

ADVANCEMENT WANTED:—Woman interested in position as Assistant Registrar or Registrar. A.B. Transylvania College, M.A., University of Kentucky. Experienced teacher of commerce. Six years as Assistant Registrar in liberal arts college. Reply PA, Care Editor, Registrar's Office, Miami University, Oxford, Ohio. (4)

POSITION WANTED:—Young woman interested in position as Assistant Registrar or Registrar, or in work in a registrar's office; coeducational college or university. A.B. degree, 1938. Experience: four years as Registrar in a liberal arts college; five years as clerk, collector of fees in a junior college. Qualified as Recorder or for work in an administrative office. Reply SO, Care Editor, Registrar's Office, Miami University, Oxford, Ohio. (3)

POSITION WANTED:—Registrar, Assistant Registrar, or Academic Advisor. Woman with six years' experience as Registrar; recording, academic advising, assembling catalogue, etc. Trained and experienced in student personnel administration. Reply FB, Care Editor, Registrar's Office, Miami University, Oxford, Ohio. (3)

ADVANCEMENT WANTED:—Man, age 39. M.A. in Business Administration. Interested in position as Registrar or Assistant Registrar in larger institution. Experience in university and college positions includes: Secretary to University President, Secretary to Vice President and Dean of Student Affairs, Instructor in Commerce, and College Registrar for nine years. Reply RB, Care Editor, Registrar's Office, Miami University, Oxford, Ohio. (3)

ADVANCEMENT WANTED:—Woman, 28, Interested in position as Assistant Registrar or Registrar. A.B. degree, 1935. Graduate work, Columbia University. Six years as Recorder and Associate in Guidance and Personnel in liberal arts college. Reply FQ, Care Editor, Registrar's Office, Miami University, Oxford, Ohio. (2)

